

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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THE PUBLIC AND HIGHER EDUCATION

ALTHOUGH it would be dangerous to belittle the threat which political manipulation presents to the development of educational opportunities in many American communities, it would be equally unsound to allow one's self to be persuaded thereby that a substantial number of our citizens are opposed to providing more and better education for American children and young people. The school man who finds himself in the middle of a local struggle to reduce or limit educational resources may very well find it difficult to believe that the majority of adults honestly favor the expansion of educational opportunities. But such is the case.

Support for this case is provided in the findings of the survey reported in the April issue of *Fortune*. Of the parents questioned, 81.3 per cent want their sons to go on from high school to college and 73.0 per cent desire a college education for their daughters. To quote *Fortune*, these are "thumping

majorities." Perhaps these figures come as no surprise to school people who have been working intimately with senior high school pupils and their parents. Neither may it be news that, among the ends to be achieved by collegiate education, the following are thought by most grown-ups to be important: "moral growth," "ability to think more logically," "desire and ability to be a more useful citizen," "ability to get along with and understand people," and "training . . . for a specific occupation or profession."

What is truly significant is that 53.6 per cent of the adults questioned by Mr. Roper and his colleagues are of the opinion that "training for a specific occupation or profession" is, of all reasons, the *most* important for attending college. No other reason seriously challenges occupational preparation for primacy.

It is immediately apparent that a wide though, hopefully, not unbridgeable chasm separates the typical American adult's views of the pur-

poses of higher education from those held by many of the most influential administrators and philosophers in the field of higher education. For example, when President Hutchins of the University of Chicago says, "Wisdom and goodness are the aim of higher education. How can it be otherwise?" he has in mind something quite different from occupational training.

This is not the place to argue a philosophy of higher education, but it is not out of place to urge the necessity of our developing a consistent set of values for college education which will be acceptable both to those giving and to those receiving such education and which will also serve as a direct and positive guide in the development of programs of higher education. The faith of the American people in the powers of education, higher education in particular, is almost unbounded. This faith seems based for the most part on the assumption, naïve perhaps, that those responsible for designing and administering post-secondary education know what they want to achieve, have chosen their tools with their purposes clearly in mind, and are actually reaching these purposes. It may be that the public interest in higher education for vocational purposes stems principally from present-day materialism. We should not, however, overlook the possibility that it represents in some measure a dissatisfaction with the results which our colleges and universities have been achieving in nonvocational areas—areas which the colleges themselves widely proclaim to be of

greater significance than preparation for earning a living.

Educators cling to the idea that their foresight has marked out the paths along which education in this country and elsewhere has advanced. A more realistic appraisal of educational history forces the conclusion that, not uncommonly, our educational philosophy has been little more than a rationalization of a pattern established by public pressure in which professional educators have played a very small part. Several considerations, pertinent to this point, seem apparent at the moment. (1) The demand for higher education will certainly increase rather than decrease. (2) Public pressure for advanced education along vocational lines is unmistakable. (3) If higher education is not to become largely vocational in its orientation, our boys and girls and their parents must be presented with arguments against this development of a far more convincing nature than any that have been submitted to them in recent years.

Two other findings of the *Fortune* survey deserve brief comment. The public agrees that the determination of what a professor teaches should be his business alone. This opinion is not, of course, unanimous, but academic freedom is still cherished by most Americans. However, it is to be presumed that, in supporting this freedom, most Americans privately reserve the right to object loudly and bitterly to the teachings of a particular topic by a particular instructor.

The other point to be noted is that

the public in general does not anticipate any substantial inroads on academic freedom if public funds should be contributed to the maintenance of collegiate institutions now supported mainly by private funds. It may be that the public is naïve about the relationship between support and control or its interpretation of academic freedom may be more restricted than that found in professional circles. But it is also possible that, with regard to the dangers inherent in governmental support, the imagination of educators has called up a horrible nightmare which has little basis in reality.

CHILD-LABOR STANDARDS IN WAR AND PEACE

MANPOWER needs during wartime have slowed down, only temporarily it is hoped, the slow but steady progress of legislation by our states to protect boys and girls from the hazards of employment at too early an age and from the more specific dangers of certain types of occupations. Unfortunately the slowing-down has shown itself, not only in the enactment of less protective legislation, but also in greater laxity on the part of many employers in abiding by the letter and the spirit of existing legislation. A study by the Children's Bureau some time ago found that the increase in the number of violations of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act was 100 per cent greater than a year previous.

No one, of course, is surprised that wartime needs have made inroads upon existing standards for child labor.

Thoughtful people also recognize that war needs have been used as an argument by some who desire a general and permanent lowering of these standards. Nevertheless, the current situation is the result, in substantial measure, of a rather general weakness in state laws. To quote from a release of the National Child Labor Committee:

The flood of bills to relax child-labor and compulsory-education laws so far has been held in check sufficiently to prevent wholesale breakdown of legal standards, but the flood of young children into industry has been impossible to check because of existing weaknesses in state laws, most of which still permit children to leave school for work at fourteen and many of which fail to set any age or hour limits for a large number of occupations. . . . War employment conditions have given a clear demonstration of what can happen in the states which have left the legal age for employment at fourteen and have failed to include all gainful occupations in age and hour limits. Only fourteen states prohibit employment under sixteen during school hours.

The picture is not entirely dark, for the legislatures in a considerable number of the forty-two states where legislatures are in session this year are considering bills which, if enacted, would strengthen and improve existing child-labor and school-attendance laws. Among these states are California, Illinois, Michigan, North Carolina, Texas, Connecticut, Massachusetts, South Carolina, Maine, and Washington. It is significant that in at least two instances the proposed legislation would regulate employment in agricultural and domestic pursuits—two areas in which exploitation has been especially widespread.

If boys and girls are to be protected against the dangers of too early employment and are, at the same time, to be given a fair chance to take advantage of existing educational opportunities, it is imperative that our state laws governing child labor be uniform at least on a minimum level. The minimum level recommended by the Children's Bureau, in a release entitled "A 16-Year Minimum Age for Employment Proposed for 1945 Legislative Action," is simple, straightforward, and obviously valid:

State labor laws [should] be amended so as to provide that no minor under sixteen years of age shall be employed, permitted, or suffered to work in any gainful occupation during school hours, and that no minor under sixteen years of age shall be employed, permitted, or suffered to work in or in connection with any manufacturing or mechanical establishment.

The certain contraction of the labor market at the cessation of hostilities will provide an excellent opportunity to secure the establishment of this minimum standard in all states and still further controls in states which now recognize this standard.

Advisory committees of the Children's Bureau have made three other recommendations regarding the employment of youth in the reconversion period which can well receive the wholehearted support of school people. The first is full enforcement of existing federal and state child-labor laws. Current conditions have revealed the need for increases in appropriations and in qualified staff to supervise the enforcement of existing controls.

Second, educational allowances in lieu of unemployment-compensation benefits should be provided for young workers returning to school:

Educational allowances payable to young workers returning to school who are otherwise eligible for unemployment compensation, in the same amounts and for the same time as unemployment-compensation benefits, should be provided to remove the serious financial handicaps to resumption of education that now exist in unemployment-compensation systems.

Finally, other financial measures, including student aid, are needed to help young people return to or continue in school. Educational allowances as proposed above ought to be supplemented by an assistance program which will aid needy boys and girls who have not been employed and those whose employment has been in areas not covered by unemployment compensation. These proposals merit the support of all American school people.

THE NEW INTEREST IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

THE realities of war seem naturally to produce two quite antagonistic developments in the behavior and the thinking of human beings. On the one hand, in the actual practice of the so-called "arts of war" we deliberately or perforce debase many of the values to which we give at least lip service in times of peace. At the same time, men's thoughts in greater numbers turn in quest of new and

higher values than those we have heretofore espoused. In particular, we note a greater interest in matters religious.

In a legal and practical way we in this country have, for the most part, staunchly supported a sharp distinction between church and state (or school). It is the writer's opinion that the distinction as it exists is desirable and should be continued. At a more fundamental level, however, it seems high time that the schools, our religious and ethical leaders, and other men of good will recognize their common concern with the "good life" and work co-operatively to this end with young people. It would seem that the current interest in the obtaining of "released time" from the school for religious education and in other essentially mechanical means which purport to promote a sense of high purpose among boys and girls are more likely to enlarge the apparent chasm between "education" and religious or ethical considerations than they are to encourage the development of a consistent and comprehensive set of values, worldly and otherwise, by the individual.

The development of a point of view regarding the school's responsibility for helping young people acquire a sturdy and acceptable set of human values requires more time and competence than are available to this writer. It seems, however, that we as teachers cannot safely continue to ignore the field of values, as we have, for the most part, in times past. To be sure,

we have not overlooked the matter of values entirely, for we have rather definite notions regarding the good and less good among the material things of life, and we do not hesitate to share these notions with our pupils. But we are uncertain and unconvincing in our treatment of higher values. It surely would be disastrous to become dogmatic and catechetical in our treatment of values; for they ordinarily are not acquired by such means and they deteriorate with such handling. What is called for is a bold but patient attempt to clarify and particularize our ideas of the truly significant guiding principles in human existence and then to use every means and resource at our disposal to help boys and girls discover these principles, or others, for themselves and to incorporate them in their daily living.

A significant step in the direction of such a clarification was the Princeton Conference on Religion and Public Education held in May, 1944, under the auspices of the American Council on Education and the National Conference of Christians and Jews. The papers presented at the conference have recently been published by the American Council under the title *Religion and Public Education*. This publication deserves the careful attention of everyone interested in the broad problem of the common responsibilities of school and church. It may be secured from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D.C.

That the proper relation of ethical values to the work of the schools is a question of more than local interest is supported by a statement in the Introduction of the 1944 Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. In the course of commenting on the papers in the volume, which is titled *Postwar Educational Reconstruction in the United Nations*, Professor I. L. Kandel writes:

It is significant that in most of the following articles a plea is made for religious education. The plea is sound, but the time has come when the concept of religious education must be defined. Too frequently religious education is understood to be synonymous with sectarian, denominational instruction. . . . It may be well to remember that religious education was an important subject of instruction in the schools of the Axis countries and that in many of the United Nations . . . public education is secular. The conclusion to be drawn from this is not that religious education should have no place in public systems of education, but that its aims and methods of instruction need to be reconsidered and that stress should be laid not on differences of creed but on the brotherhood of man and on the ideals common to all great religions of the world.

The pleas for a religious foundation for education are due, no doubt, to the overemphasis on a materialistic interpretation of life which was dominant in the period between the two wars and to the gradual disappearance of faith in anything. There is some danger also that the demands made by the war needs upon science and technology have diverted attention from the study of the humanities, a condition which may continue in the postwar years if the materials for rebuilding the world are to be provided. . . . The time has come when the whole problem of the relations between science and

the humanities in a liberal education must be reconsidered. The place of the sciences in transforming the world cannot be ignored in a humanistic education, for even the humanities as expressions of the mind of man are inevitably affected by the advance of the sciences. On the other hand, science and technology must be directed to ends and purposes which transcend their immediate scope and function. It is in this setting that the place of religious education as an essential part of historical humanism must be considered; sectarian doctrines should be left to the home and to the churches.

A HANDBOOK ON THE U.S.A.

SOMEWHERE within the five hundred pages of the *American Handbook* (prepared by the Office of War Information and published by the Public Affairs Press), one can obtain an answer for almost any question one may have or be able to construct concerning life and government in these United States. The chapters range from "National Government" and "Wartime Agencies" through "Conservation," "Religion," and "Art and Architecture," not to mention a ten-page summary of "Significant Facts." These columns are not assigned to book reviews, but, since the *Handbook* should be a most useful volume in the schools and since it seems hardly susceptible to review in the usual sense, its publication is noted here. Librarians, social-studies teachers, school and college students, and the general public should find it a most useful and interesting document. Copies may be secured for \$3.75 from the Public Affairs Press, Washington, D.C.

PROBLEMS OF THE EX-SERVICEMAN

WITH the end of the war in sight, it is natural that our attention wanders increasingly to the pleasures and the problems of reconversion. It is natural, too, that, in planning for the return of both military personnel and civilians to less warlike interests, we should think first of providing employment for all and then of the educational needs of men and women whose educational plans were interrupted by Pearl Harbor and subsequent events. But we cannot establish a satisfying and constructive postwar social pattern if we limit our concern only to seeing to it that some millions of our citizens who have been in the armed forces are assured of employment, of a chance to go to school, and of the miscellaneous honors and perquisites customarily accorded veterans. For most men and women, the greatest problems upon returning to civilian life will be psychological. If these necessary psychological adjustments are to be made in good order, civilians and civilian life must give the veteran an understanding reception. But it is equally important that the veteran himself be equipped with some understanding of his own problems—where they come from and what can be done about them.

A handbook which is certain to be of direct and personal assistance to many a man and woman is *Psychology for the Returning Serviceman*, prepared by a committee of the National Research Council and published by the

Infantry Journal and Penguin Books. "In this book are gathered together psychological facts about why men think and feel as they do—facts that may help the serviceman in fitting back into civilian life." The book deals in simple, honest, practical, and accurate fashion with such potential sources of disturbance as "Learning new skills," "Returning to your wife," "Getting well," "Combat nerves," and "Loss of limb."

It is probable that *Psychology for the Returning Serviceman* will be at least as widely read by civilians as by service personnel, and so it should be. We who have stayed at home know that our veterans will have problems of readjustment, but most of us are not certain what these problems are likely to be specifically. In this small volume we can get such definition and can, by a slight translation of the ideas in it, obtain excellent suggestions for working and living with the men and women who have fought the war for us.

BRIEF MENTION

Meeting The state of Georgia has
educational taken a step which
needs should result in strengthening its educational program by formulating a plan for assisting educational forces at all levels, but especially at the county and local levels, to discover and to meet educational needs. The state has created an Agricultural and Industrial Development Board and given it responsibility for initiating develop-

mental programs in all areas of the economic and social life of the state. The board is organized in seven panels, one of which is concerned with education. The Education Panel, with M. D. Collins as chairman and O. C. Aderhold as director, has begun its work by carrying on intensive developmental programs in twelve counties. The activities of the panel thus far are reported in two bulletins, *School Leaders Manual* and *Georgia School Communities Plan for Action*, issued as Education Bulletins 1 and 2 by the Education Panel of the Agricultural and Industrial Development Board, Athens, Georgia.

Educating labor and industry An educational and social experiment which deserves the careful observation of every citizen is the proposed New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, to be located on the Cornell University campus. The school is one result of the activities of the Ives Committee (New York State Joint Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions). Members of the committee early became convinced that many conflicts between labor and industry are the consequence of ignorance regarding legal and other considerations at issue. Proposing a school which would help promote better relations by substituting knowledge for ignorance was a natural result of this conviction. If present proposals for the school are adopted, the school will be administered by the University's Board of Trustees, but three labor

members will be added to the Board. The college will be free. It will aim to train leaders of labor, industry, and government in the theory and the practice of labor relations.

School library problems In a recent publication entitled *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*, the American Library Association has done a fine service by bringing together in brief compass the fundamental considerations in the planning and the operating of a school library. This pamphlet is not intended to be a substitute for more extensive and detailed treatments of school library problems, but it is an excellent summary which should be of especial interest to school administrators.

Another publication of the American Library Association, *The Librarian and the Teacher of Home Economics*, by Frances Henne and Margaret Pritchard of the University of Chicago, is worthy of note. This pamphlet tells the story of some of the ways in which a librarian, a home-economics teacher, and the students in the University High School at the University of Chicago worked together. It is an illustration of the efforts being made by many teachers of the home arts to expand the contributions which their subject area is making to general education.

Both pamphlets may be secured from the American Library Association, Chicago, Illinois. The first one mentioned is priced at one dollar; the second, at seventy-five cents.

Tests to use in guidance The Western State College of Colorado, at Gunnison, has recently issued an enlarged "List of Tests for Use in the Guidance of Secondary School Pupils." This list, which was compiled by N. William Newsom, director of instruction, includes about 110 tests, together with information concerning the publisher, the cost, and the purpose of each test and comments on the use of each.

Educating the foreign-born Most school people who are not directly confronted with the need for education for foreign-born noncitizens in this country are likely to assume that this need is trivial or nonexistent in these days. The fact of the matter is that there are approximately three and a half million noncitizens in this country, most of whom are not well assimilated into the life of the United States. As would be expected, the problems created by non-assimilation are most acute in our large cities. As a contribution to the solution of these problems, a committee was sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators to study conditions and to report to the association. This committee, with the assistance of the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the United States Department of Justice, has prepared a pamphlet entitled *Civic Education for the Foreign-born in the United States*, in which is presented "the essential job yet to be done in the area of education for the foreign-born," together with a tabulation of

the number of noncitizens by cities and states. This report should be studied by everyone who has a personal or professional concern for the wider responsibilities of our public-school system.

Course of study in speech Doris Niles, writing in the December, 1944, issue of *Our Tulsa Schools*, discusses the new speech curriculum in the Tulsa (Oklahoma) junior high schools. The committee which developed the new course of study took as its point of departure the speech activities in which junior high school boys and girls actually engage, in school and out. A second part of the course of study presents the speech techniques and attitudes basic to speech activities. Four illustrative units are given. The Appendix suggests suitable commercial program material and includes a sample pupil-evaluation chart. This new curriculum is an example of the trend in speech work in the direction of greater emphasis on personality development and the integration of speech instruction with the ongoing life of the pupil and the school.

In-service training of teachers Most high schools in wartime have found themselves badly in need of in-service training for their staffs because of the forced use of inadequately prepared teachers. At the same time, many teacher-training institutions have been freer than usual to provide such training because of their reduced on-campus enrolments.

Professor J. G. Umstattd reports in the December, 1944, issue of the *High School Journal* on the efforts of forty-five high schools and twenty-two colleges in the state of Texas to work together to solve their common needs. College presidents agreed to permit staff members to do off-campus work, and travel expenses were provided for them from the General Education Board grant for the Texas Study of Secondary Education.

Although, as would be expected, there were at the outset adjustments to the arrangement which both schools and colleges found difficult to make, the co-operative plan now is receiving wide acceptance. Professor Umstattd says that it "appears that a co-operative enterprise begun as a wartime measure has borne sufficient evidence of mutual advantages to high school and college to justify its continuance into the period of postwar adjustment."

Promotional policies The Statistical Section of the *Forty-fifth Annual Report* of the Superintendent of Schools of

New York City contains a great deal of material which, by implication, indicates the impact of modern educational ideas upon the activities of the school system of a large city. For example, the promotion rate in Grade I A in 1934 was 88.3 per cent, while in 1943 it was 94.5 per cent. The comparable figures for Grade VIII A are 91.9 and 95.3 per cent. Perhaps the most telling comment on the effects of modern promotional policies is the

statement that "about two-thirds of the high-school graduates were under age at graduation, about 28 per cent were of normal age, while but 5 per cent were over age."

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION RESUMES ACCREDITING ACTIVITIES

THE moratorium on the acceptance of applications for the accrediting of colleges and universities, imposed by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1943 for the "duration," has been lifted, and regular accrediting activities will be resumed by the Commission on Colleges and Universities beginning July 1, 1945. The following policy was adopted at the meetings of the Board of Review and the Executive Committee of the North Central Association on April 5 and 6:

In receiving applications for accrediting, the secretary's office is instructed to follow the policy of discouraging institutions which may not be operating under substantially normal conditions. One evidence of normal operational conditions shall be an enrolment of civilian students, counted at the end of the first month of the regular academic year, at least 70 per cent as large as the enrolment on the corresponding date in 1940. Another evidence of normal operational conditions shall be that not to exceed 20 per cent of the instructional staff are serving on appointments that are to be terminated by the return of the regular faculty members who are on leave of absence because of war conditions. The secretary's office shall make clear and explicit to institutional officials that programs will be judged on the basis of current observations; past conditions and future prospects will not be ignored, but they will not be determinative.

CONFERENCE ON HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION

A CONFERENCE on human development and education, designed for teachers and administrative and supervisory officers of schools and school systems and for staff members of teachers' colleges, will be held at the University of Chicago August 6-18. This conference will consider the educational implications of knowledge about human development and behavior and the nature of the training program for prospective teachers that will help them understand children. The results will be reviewed in a series of lectures. Working groups will be formed under staff leadership to discuss the implications of this knowledge for such educational problems as may be selected for study by members of the conference. The materials prepared or gathered by the University's Collaboration Center for the Study of Human Development and Behavior will be available to those participating in the conference. The conference fee is \$10. Credit for one-half course may be obtained by paying the regular tuition fee and by meeting other requirements of the course. Applications for admission to the conference, which is limited to seventy-five persons, should be addressed to Professor Daniel A. Prescott, director of the conference. In keeping with the government's policy of reducing wartime travel, this conference is administered primarily for registered students, although other persons living in the vicinity of the University who desire to attend the sessions of the

conference may apply for admission to the conference only, in harmony with previous practice.

EIGHTH ANNUAL READING CONFERENCE

THE eighth annual Conference on Reading at the University of Chicago will be held in Mandel Hall, beginning Monday afternoon, July 9, and extending through Friday, July 13, 1945. The central theme of the conference will be "The Appraisal of Current Practices in Reading." The programs for the general sessions follow.

MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 9

"Reading: A Crucial Educational Activity," George D. Stoddard, Commissioner of Education, State of New York

"Criteria for Appraising the Scope and Organization of Reading Programs in Elementary and Secondary Schools," William S. Gray, Department of Education, University of Chicago

MONDAY EVENING, JULY 9

"Army Experiences with Readers and Reading and Their Implications for Postwar Education," Paul Witty, Northwestern University (formerly a major in the United States Army)

TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 10

"Criteria for Appraising Reading Programs with Reference to the Procedures Used in Promoting Growth in and through Reading," Virgil E. Herrick, Department of Education, University of Chicago

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 10

"Criteria for Appraising (a) the Kinds and Amounts of Reading Materials Provided and (b) the Methods Used in Making Them Available," Frances E. Henne, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago

"Report on Significant Books for Library and Class Use Published since the 1944 Conference"

a) Eloise Rue, Children's and School Librarian, Evanston, Illinois

b) Mildred Batchelder, Chief, School and Children's Library Division, American Library Association, Chicago, Illinois

c) Jean Gardiner Smith, Librarian, University High School, University of Minnesota

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 11

"Approaches to Differentiated Reading Instruction," Emmett A. Betts, Pennsylvania State College

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 11

"What Reading Clinicians Have Learned about Handicapped Readers That Can Be Applied by Classroom Teachers," Emmett A. Betts, Pennsylvania State College

WEDNESDAY EVENING, JULY 11

Members of the conference are to be guests at the radio broadcast "The Human Adventure"

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 12

"Criteria for Appraising Efforts To Promote Growth in the Interpretation of What Is Read," William S. Gray, Department of Education, University of Chicago

Discussion Leader: T. R. McConnell, Dean, College of Science, Literature, and the Arts, University of Minnesota

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 12

"Criteria for Evaluating a School's Program for Developing Accuracy and Independence in Word Perception," Harry G. Wheat, University of West Virginia

THURSDAY EVENING, JULY 12

Round Table on Reading Problems, William S. Gray presiding

FRIDAY MORNING, JULY 13

"Current Issues concerning the Role and Teaching of Literature," Elizabeth Rusk, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 13

"An Appraisal of the Non-oral Method of Teaching Reading," Guy T. Buswell, Department of Education, University of Chicago

"Summary of Criteria for Appraising a School's Reading Program," Ralph W. Tyler, Department of Education, University of Chicago

The topics to be considered at the sectional meetings for high-school and junior-college teachers, which are co-ordinated in time with the general topics outlined above, follow.

TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 10

"Appraisal of Contrasting Types of Reading Programs," Mary E. Thurston, Director of Laboratory English, Senior High School, Anderson, Indiana

Discussion Leader: Nelle F. Kerchner, Research Staff, Bureau of Curriculum, Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 10

"The Nature and Amount of the Materials Needed in Promoting Growth in and through Reading," Robert White, Principal of the High School and Dean of the Junior College, Burlington, Iowa

Discussion Leader: Alice Lohrer, Library School, University of Illinois

TUESDAY EVENING, JULY 10

Demonstrations of the Use of Audio-visual Instructional Materials in Promoting Growth in and through Reading, Helen Flynn, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 11

"Appraisal of Different Methods of Adapting Reading Programs, Materials, and Guidance to the Varying Needs of Pupils," Arthur E. Traxler, Educational Records Bureau, New York City

Discussion Leader: Warren C. Seyfert, Director, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 11

"Appraisal of Different Techniques of Helping Poor and Disabled Readers," Arthur E. Traxler, Educational Records Bureau, New York City

Discussion Leader: Mrs. Ralph McClelland, Remedial English Teacher, La Grange High School, La Grange, Illinois

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 12

"Appraisal of Current Practices in Promoting Growth in Understanding and Interpreting What Is Read," Russell Thomas, The College, University of Chicago

Discussion Leaders: Edith E. Shepherd, Laboratory School, University of Chicago; Milton B. Singer, The College, University of Chicago

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 12

"Basic Facts and Techniques Essential in Dealing with Word Perception Difficulties," Leone M. Burfield, Instructor in Remedial Reading, University of Chicago

Discussion Leader: Dorothy C. Page, Bureau of Child Study, Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois

FRIDAY MORNING, JULY 13

"Criteria for Selecting Literature for School Use and for Judging Methods of Presenting or Using It," Harold A. Anderson, Department of Education, University of Chicago; President, National Council of Teachers of English

Discussion Leader: Isabel Kincheloe, Research Staff, Bureau of Curriculum, Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois

In co-operation with the government's policy of reducing wartime travel for civilians, the conference is being organized this year primarily for the benefit of students, other members of the University community, and residents of the Chicago area. Teachers and school officers living outside the Chicago area who wish to take advantage of the Reading Conference this summer are urged to register in the University for the three-week term beginning June 25. A wide variety of courses in reading will be offered during that term. Participation in the Reading Conference is required in most of these courses. Any student registered during the term beginning June 25 may attend the Reading Conference without the payment of special fees.

Since the Reading Conference is classified as a "short course" and not as a "convention," teachers, school officers, and others who are not registered for work in the University may attend the Reading Conference. They will pay a regular registration fee in harmony with the practice of previous years.

The proceedings of the conference will be published as in former years. Inquiries should be directed to Professor William S. Gray, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

WARREN C. SEYFERT

WHO'S WHO FOR JUNE

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by WARREN C.

SEYFERT, associate professor of education and director of the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago. J. PAUL LEONARD, associate professor of education at Stanford University, summarizes investigations which have been made concerning the relation of success in college to various patterns of required subjects in high school and, in light of the evidence, points out the responsibilities of colleges and secondary schools. HAROLD SPEARS, head of the Department of Integration at State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey, maintains that most high schools are not prepared to serve the returning veterans who have not yet graduated from high school and indicates what provisions must be made to meet the needs of these veterans. GUSTAVE A. FEINGOLD, principal of the Bulkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut, presents data to show in what ways standards for high-school graduation have been affected by war conditions. HELEN FLYNN, teacher in the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago, and STEPHEN M. COREY, professor of educational psychology and director of the Center for the Study of Audio-visual Instructional Materials at the University of Chicago, discuss ways in which sound films may be used to teach the communication skills. H. BOODISH, chair-

man of the Social Studies Department at the Dobbins Vocational School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, considers the basic problems facing educators in extending appropriate educational offerings to all youth and suggests supervised part-time work as one means of reaching those young people who are not interested in the formal school program. B. EVERARD BLANCHARD, principal of the Dixie County High School, Cross City, Florida, re-examines the goals of the school health program and the place of exercise in promoting physical fitness. FRANCES SWINEFORD, research associate in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, and KARL J. HOLZINGER, professor of education at the same institution, supply a list of selected references in the field of educational statistics.

Reviewers of books LEO M. HAUPTMAN, registrar and director of student personnel at Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Michigan. ROBERT B. BROWNE, associate professor of education, director of the Division of University Extension, and director of the summer semester at the University of Illinois. L. H. FOSTER, JR., treasurer at Tuskegee Institute. HARRIETT COCHRAN RICHARDSON, teacher of commercial subjects at Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois.

CAN WE FACE THE EVIDENCE ON COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS?

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FOR the four out of five high-school graduates who go to work after leaving high school, the secondary school is the end of their formal education. Theoretically, therefore, the secondary school is the basic school which society is using in this country to establish social competence, international understanding, good health, and vocational skills. Individual achievement of these goals probably results more from a study of modern social issues, contemporary international attitudes, industrial processes, health practices, and adequate work experience than from the formal type of education characteristic of the typical undergraduate years in college. Only one out of every five high-school graduates goes to college; yet, according to the National Survey of Secondary Education in 1932, 66 per cent of the time of youth in high school was spent on academic subjects suitable for college entrance.¹ The New York State survey indicated that in 1937 about 75 per cent of the time in the high schools was spent on academic

subjects or work in music and art.² Yet not more than half of our youth can profit by such academic study or successfully pursue it.

COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

The typical college-entrance program has been made up of specific designations of a certain number of subjects pursued in high school. Twenty years ago the average number of subjects required for college entrance was 10; in 1938 it was 9.4,³ and no significant change has been made since that time. Furthermore, little change has taken place in the specifications of subjects acceptable for college entrance. The subjects required for college entrance have been considered valuable either in forming mental habits, in giving basic background training, in selecting capable students, or in being the most worthwhile activities in general which college-bound youth could pursue while

¹ Francis T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, p. 125. Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938.

² *From High School to College*, p. 77. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XVI, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1938.

³ A. K. Loomis, Edwin S. Lide, and B. Lamar Johnson, *The Program of Studies*, p. 231. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 19. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933.

in the secondary school. Belief in these specific requirements rests chiefly on the idea that knowledge is power, although we have recently come to recognize that, while knowledge is one very important source of competency, attitudes and experience are likewise important.

Other types of measures have also been used for admission to college. Subject examinations, prepared either by state or district boards or by colleges themselves, have been frequently used. Extensive use has also been made of batteries of standard tests and of aptitude tests. Some colleges have experimented with comprehensive reports from the secondary schools, while others have used high-school certification accompanied by certain standards of grade-point averages. Many studies have been made of the relationship between these measures and college success. Statistical studies have been carried on both by collegiate institutions and by research workers in the public schools. A brief survey of the chief findings of nearly 150 of these studies will serve to indicate the extent to which these measures have been helpful in determining success in college.⁴

⁴ The best study of the relation of college-entrance requirements to success in college is David Segel, *Prediction of Success in College*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, 1934. Little has been added to this literature since 1934. A review of the literature since 1934 may be found in the *Review of Educational Research*, VIII (June, 1938), chap. iv.

See also the following studies:

a) Lawrence Bolenbaugh and William Martin Proctor, "Relation of the Subjects Taken in High School to Success in College," *Journal of*

COLLEGE SUCCESS AND TEST SCORES

One of the types of studies carried on is designed to find the correlation between general college scholarship and other general averages or scores. These studies have used averages of marks on college subjects and scores on aptitude or intelligence tests, special tests on specific traits, and tests on general achievement, usually prepared as a battery of items in several subject fields. The average correlations, shown by a large number of studies, between general college scholarship and mental tests is .44; between college scholarship and general achievement tests, .55; between college scholarship and tests of specific traits, aptitudes, or achievements, .37; and between college scholarship and average of high-school teachers' marks, .55. Obviously, general college scholarship does not correlate highly with these tests.

Other studies have been based on

Educational Research, XV (February, 1927), 87-92.

b) Harl R. Douglass, *The Relation of High School Preparation and Certain Other Factors to Academic Success at the University of Oregon*. University of Oregon Publications, Education Series, Vol. III, No. 1. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1931.

c) Harl R. Douglass, "The Relation of Pattern of High School Credits to Scholastic Success in College," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VI (December, 1931), 283-97.

d) M. J. Nelson, "A Study in the Value of Entrance Requirements at Iowa State Teachers College," *School and Society*, XXXVII (February 25, 1933), 262-64.

e) Herbert Sorenson, "High-School Subjects as Conditioners of College Success: Implications and Theories concerning Mental Factors and Faculties," *Journal of Educational Research*, XIX (April, 1929), 237-54.

an attempt to find the correlations between college success in specific subjects and scores on general mental tests. Average correlations here run as follows: the correlation between general mental tests and college success in foreign language is .32; in English, .38; in mathematics or science, .36; and in social science, .35. Clearly these correlations are too low to give much encouragement to this method.

Other research workers have endeavored to find the correlations between success in specific subjects and scores on general achievement tests. The average correlations between general achievement test and college success in foreign language is .36; in English, .42; and in mathematics or science, .32. Instead of using general achievement tests, other investigators have used tests of specific traits or aptitudes or achievement. The average correlation between these tests and college success in foreign language is .40; in English, .42; in mathematics or science, .45; and in social studies, .46. Obviously, all these correlations are of no worth in predicting individual success and are very low for use in predicting success of groups. There is, obviously, little relationship between general college success and scores on general achievement tests, general mental tests, or tests of specific traits, aptitude, or achievement.

Another group of studies is based on an attempt to predict Freshman scholarship in certain subjects by trying to use combinations of marks of high-school teachers in particular

subjects. For instance, the average correlation between success in college Freshman chemistry and a combination of teachers' marks in high-school chemistry, any other science, and the scores on intelligence tests is .53. The average correlation between success in college Freshman geometry and a combination made up of marks in high-school geometry, any other course in mathematics, and the scores on intelligence tests is .35. It is clear from these studies that the prediction of success in any particular subject in college is very difficult. It seems obvious also that success in college subjects depends on many other factors than success in a particular pattern of courses in high school.

Other attempts have been made to discover the relationship between scores on tests in special subjects and success in these same subjects in high school. Such correlations as the following are typical: in chemistry, .44; in English, .64; in mathematics, .61.

COLLEGE SUCCESS AND GENERAL HIGH-SCHOOL SUCCESS

Discouraged by the low correlations on individual tests, investigators have attempted to use composite groups of items and, through statistical treatment of the data, have raised the correlation between these composites and college success. Of all the patterns tried, Segel indicates that the one with the highest correlation with college success is made up of the combination of average high-school marks, a group intelligence test, and a comprehensive English test. The correla-

tion between this composite and college success was .81. The second highest pattern was a combination of average high-school marks, a group intelligence test, and a study performance test. This combination produced a correlation with college success of .75. These pattern combinations are exceedingly interesting, for they give evidence to indicate that college success depends more on one's total ability, demonstrated in a high-school curriculum suited to him, than it does on success in particular tests or in particular subjects. The first pattern, if applied as college-entrance requirements, would leave the school free to do what secondary-school teachers deem best for youth without regard to any specific requirements for college entrance. It simply gives credence to what common sense would dictate, namely, that, if a youth wished to go to college to continue his study, he should have reasonably good ability, should demonstrate his ability to study, and should have a command of his mother-tongue.

FINDINGS OF THE EIGHT-YEAR STUDY

Probably the most significant study ever made in the field of college and secondary-school relationships was made by the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association.⁵

⁵ For a brief summary of this study, see Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, chap. v. *Adventure in American Education*, Vol. I. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

For a complete follow-up study of the col-

This study over a period of eight years involved several thousand youth in thirty secondary schools and about three hundred colleges in the United States. In order, however, to make an intensive study of a specific group, about two thousand students from state universities, men's colleges, women's colleges, and coeducational endowed colleges and universities were chosen for study. From this group 1,475 students were finally selected and carefully paired with the same number of students entering the colleges from the conventional high schools.

In order to define college success, a group of college faculty members from these representative institutions drew up a list of criteria by which they could judge college success. It included the following:

1. Intellectual competence
2. Cultural development; use of leisure time; appreciative and creative aspects
3. Practical competence; common sense and judgment; ordinary manual skills; environmental adaptability
4. Philosophy of life (pattern of goals)
5. Character traits (pattern of behavior)
6. Emotional balance (including mental health)
7. Social fitness
8. Sensitivity to social problems
9. Physical fitness (knowledge and practice of health habits)⁶

lege graduates, see Dean Chamberlin, Enid Chamberlin, Neal E. Drought, and William E. Scott, *Did They Succeed in College? Adventure in American Education*, Vol. IV. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

⁶ Wilford M. Aikin, *op. cit.*, p. 106.

Each of these criteria was broken down into specific subdivisions, and for each subdivision sources of evidence were suggested. On the basis of these criteria, the 1,475 pairs of youth were studied to determine whether youth entering college from the thirty experimental secondary schools were more successful in college than were those students entering from conventional high schools. The results of the study indicate that the graduates of the thirty schools:

1. Earned a slightly higher total grade average;
2. Earned higher grade averages in all subject fields except foreign language;
3. Specialized in the same academic fields as did the comparison students;
4. Did not differ from the comparison group in the number of times they were placed on probation;
5. Received slightly more academic honors in each year;
6. Were more often judged to possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity and drive;
7. Were more often judged to be precise, systematic, and objective in their thinking;
8. Were more often judged to have developed clear or well-formulated ideas concerning the meaning of education—especially in the first two years in college;
9. More often demonstrated a high degree of resourcefulness in meeting new situations;
10. Did not differ from the comparison group in ability to plan their time effectively;
11. Had about the same problems of adjustment as the comparison group but approached their solution with greater effectiveness;
12. Participated somewhat more frequently, and more often enjoyed appreciative experiences, in the arts;
13. Participated more in all organized

student groups except religious and "service" activities;

14. Earned in each college year a higher percentage of nonacademic honors (officership in organizations, election to managerial societies, athletic insignia, leading roles in dramatic and musical presentations);

15. Did not differ from the comparison group in the quality of adjustment to their contemporaries;

16. Differed only slightly from the comparison group in kinds of judgments about their schooling;

17. Had somewhat better orientation toward the choice of a vocation;

18. Demonstrated a more active concern for what was going on in the world.⁷

This investigation has revealed clearly that the graduates of the experimental schools were more successful in college than were those of conventional schools. An interesting aspect of this study reveals that, when the graduates of the most extreme experimental schools are separated from the total group, it is discovered that the success of these graduates in college is even higher than that of the total group or of the least experimental group. The study reveals also that, even though some of the differences were not large, they were consistently in favor of the experimental group. Students from the experimental groups were better risks for colleges, judged either by college standards or by the students' contemporaries, than were students from conventional high schools. These findings are again in harmony with some of the correlations mentioned earlier. They are certainly in agreement with

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 111-12.

the highest correlation indicated, showing that general success in high school, together with general ability, is a better indication of college success than is any particular pattern of courses. Clearly the assumption that college success depends upon pursuing prescribed subjects in high school cannot longer be accepted by thinking people.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF COLLEGE FACULTIES

With evidence available for examination by the colleges, several responsibilities devolve upon college faculties.

1. *The colleges can no longer support the practice of accrediting high schools in their state or region.* For years certain colleges in the country have tended to rate the success of the secondary schools in terms of the success of small groups of graduates in their Freshman year in college. These records have been sent home, have frequently become public property, and have served to spur the community to put more pressure on the high school to do more conventional college-entrance work. For a period of years the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, for instance, has had a practice of taking all Freshman marks of youth in the high schools and the colleges in the association, averaging them, determining a percentage rating, and ranking the high schools of the southern states in terms of these percentages. These figures have been published yearly so

that all lay and school people may read them. Some high schools have sent one hundred graduates to college and some only one, but the percentages are calculated the same way for all. This statistical procedure, accepted by the colleges and high schools for this particular purpose, would be totally unacceptable to professors teaching statistics, mathematics, or science in college, if the data were concerned with a different implication or issue. Besides the criticism of the mathematics involved, the practice itself is defenseless.

In California the average marks of students in their high-school work have been compared with their average marks in college Freshman work, and the success of the high school has been judged on the correlation of these two averages. Such a practice assumes that the procedures of the Freshman years in college are above reproach and that any failure of the student is due to the inefficiency of the high school. A practice based on such an assumption is a bit of academic shamelessness.

2. *It is not the function of the college to define college-entrance requirements in such a way as to determine the nature of the program which the secondary schools can offer.* If the average number of specified entrance courses in the United States is 9.4, and there are some students in nearly all high schools who plan to go to college, these ten required units must necessarily become a part of the total sixteen units which the pupil takes for gradu-

ation from high school. In almost half the high schools in America the total school enrolment is so small that these ten units virtually become required units for all graduates, whether or not they go to college. In addition to this requirement phase of the program, the colleges have done much to convince society at large that the best type of education is to be found in pursuing these respected courses. This attitude has been caught by parents, and, in an attempt to raise the social level of their children, they have insisted that these requirements be fulfilled in order to attain a measure of social and academic respectability. This general attitude, sponsored by the colleges and by the teachers trained in college, has made it difficult to secure equal respect of parents and youth for terminal courses. To be sure, the college is interested in the kind of student it gets and it has a right to determine what students it shall work with; but, in doing so, it has the obligation to society and to the field of research to make such determination in the light of existing evidence and with due respect to the total job which society expects the secondary school to discharge.

3. *The college has equal responsibility with the secondary school for designing a program of growth and development consistent with our concept of educational continuity.* Youth find great differences between the secondary school and college. If maturation itself is a consistent enlargement of abilities and understandings, great

gaps should not exist between the several units of our total educational ladder. Particularly in the Freshman work in college, ample study should be made of the transitional procedures in guidance, in methods of teaching, and in the selection of content. If a Freshman student fails in college when he has done successful work in the secondary school, the college is obligated to assume major responsibility for such failure. The practice of casting the blame off on the secondary school to save one's face is neither defensible intellectually nor fair to the student. The college has an obligation to guide students carefully into the new types of experiences which it thrusts upon them.

4. *The college is obligated to respect the studies which have been made on college-entrance requirements or to propose and conduct alternative studies in harmony with the goals of college success and the goals of a secondary school in a democracy.* The practice of ignoring investigations that have been made or of deprecating the findings by ignoring or unduly criticizing the studies upon which they are based is too common. Investigators who make the studies are even more critical of their inability to secure conclusive findings than are those who interpret the studies. However, the preponderance of evidence tending to point in the same general direction cannot be lightly dismissed.

5. *The college is obligated to define its purposes clearly.* The term "general education" is probably unfortunate

because it implies something which is lacking in definiteness. It implies an education that is without specific purpose and that, as such, cannot be adequately evaluated. If the college is to achieve its goals, it must define them clearly enough to recognize the expression of them in the behavior of its students. Manifestations of success in a particular subject alone may not be commensurate with the achievement of these general goals. Before adequate articulation can take place between the secondary school and the college, much more careful work must be done in defining the goals of education at both levels, in seeing that adequate purpose on the part of the student and the faculty is injected into the work, and in making certain that adequate measures of evaluation are devised.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF SECONDARY- SCHOOL FACULTIES

The high school, too, has obligations in improving the relationships between secondary school and college and in improving its own work. Three responsibilities can be stressed.

1. *The secondary school is obligated to prepare youth successfully to meet their problems.* All youth shall acquire social competence in a democratic society, shall maintain health, shall become efficient in family living, and shall possess some vocational skill which can be used immediately upon leaving high school, or shall possess the ability and drive to continue study into the professional schools.

These purposes must stand out in every good secondary school, but they are worthless unless they are translated into the educational program of each individual pupil. The range of differences in the secondary school is so great that individual analysis, program-building, and methods of teaching are necessary if adequate growth and development are to be secured. The secondary school must assume the obligation of achieving its goals with students and of doing the job well. It, too, cannot censure the schools immediately below it or blame the youth for not being different. Neither can it successfully maintain as an alibi the excuse that, if it were not chained to a community, to colleges, or to incompetent youth, it could do a superior job. College-entrance subjects are not "cultural" subjects for all youth; they should be considered pre-professional courses and in general be as occupational for professional pupils as shop-work is for mechanics. If the secondary school is to attain full-grown status, it must achieve success with the conditions and the pupils with which it works, while at the same time it endeavors to make the working conditions more desirable.

2. *The secondary school must stop teaching the things it knows to be non-functional in the lives of boys and girls.* The pressure of community demands can be changed. The understandings of teachers can be improved. Even existing college requirements can be met without the formalized procedures and content now typical of the

secondary schools. Formally trained teachers, protected by tenure, community sentiment, and college requirements, continue insupportable practices largely because their own attitudes are opposed to change. The secondary school must face the problem of marked change in its program, its methods, and the attitude of its teaching staff, if it is to contribute effectively to the survival of democracy.

Far too much stress is laid on traditional teaching practices. Ample experimentation has been carried out to demonstrate that pupil planning, pupil-teacher discussions, excursions, problem-solving methods, and the organization of materials into large blocks are far more effective methods of teaching than the conventional plans. The introduction into the school of contemporary social issues gives greater purpose to education and enables the child to use content and methods more nearly in harmony with the types of problems that he faces when leaving school. These changes can be made even before the colleges discharge their obligations to change their entrance patterns.

3. *Like the college, the secondary school needs to define its job more definitely.* Secondary education needs to become more purposeful. Materials appropriate to the purposes of the school need to be introduced. The activities and issues of community living need to be understood. Experiences need to be provided for democratic living. Visual and auditory

aids need to replace the almost exclusive emphasis on reading. Participation in actual work in community improvement and in study and work experience on prospective jobs needs to be introduced. While there are many changes that can be made, these will be inconsequential unless they are preceded by a thorough understanding of the purposes of secondary education. These purposes can be set up only in keeping with competent knowledge of the nature of the culture, the nature of individual growth and development, and the jobs which society expects of the secondary school. Too long secondary teachers have been vaguely supposing that the teaching of conventional subjects was good, without adequately relating it to social living.

CO-OPERATION IS NEEDED

The colleges and secondary schools can discharge their obligations to society best by working together. The struggle for independence of each institution is no longer compatible with democratic living. Colleges, whether they be state or private, have an obligation to society at large, just as do the secondary schools. All of them exist for a purpose, and this purpose must be geared into the life of the community at large and contribute to the general welfare of society. If the goals of education are to be successfully achieved, they will be secured through co-operation between the various units of our educational system.

DO THE HIGH SCHOOLS WANT THE RETURNING VETERAN?

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MOST American high schools are at the moment ill prepared to serve the returning veteran who has not yet graduated from high school and who may wish to take advantage of the financial provisions of the G.I. Bill of Rights (Public Law 346) to do so. Whether the schools come forward to team with the federal government's liberal measure in meeting his needs depends largely on their interpretation of two things: (1) the provisions of the bill itself and (2) the nature and the function of the high-school curriculum.

As to the bill, the more the school administration leaves the study and interpretation of its provisions to the Veterans Administration alone, the less the chance that the special school provisions implied in the spirit of the act will be obtained. The more the school administrator suggests and pushes an interpretation of the provisions, teamed up with his own ideas of what his school might offer in the way of a special program, the more the Veterans Administration will appreciate this professional thinking and react accordingly.

As to the curriculum, the more it is conceived by the school authorities, state and local, as a relatively fixed

program of studies that should be covered by all who dare seek a diploma, the less it will attract the returning veteran; for he no doubt sampled *Silas Marner*, the *Paramecium*, and the adventures of *Romulus and Remus* before he left for war. The more the curriculum is conceived as having its being and its bearing in the life and the needs of the particular student at hand, the more it will appear as a natural part of his life equipment that he must pick up soon after his return from war.

That the high schools are at the moment ill prepared to serve the non-graduated veteran is evident for a number of reasons:

1. The first inclination of the veteran, upon his return, will be to achieve as soon as possible a community adjustment comparable to his age and maturity, which in most instances will mean an occupation and a home of his own. The vast majority of these nongraduates must obtain further schooling in the evenings, and at present only an insignificantly small percentage of the schools offer evening courses for credit.

2. The day-school program offers small promise of adjustment and satisfaction for these men, even if they

were inclined to attend high school full-time. In the first place, they will have little in common with the normal adolescent population of the school and even less in common with the courses that supposedly meet the needs and the interests of this age group. Since courses of study in the academic areas in the high schools are often set up as rather well-defined bodies of content that must be covered, many of them will contain little of interest for the veteran.

3. Furthermore, high-school teachers and administrators get little consolation out of trying to picture their school populations of normal age spotted noticeably with the returned servicemen. When we consider the incongruity of this picture of active men thrown into our passive classrooms populated by adolescents, perhaps we shall not wonder that high schools are showing little concern about the further education of these men. It is much easier to cast the frown of disapproval on the worldly-wise veteran than on the time-honored curriculum.

THE DIPLOMA AS STANDARD EQUIPMENT

Even in the light of the unharmonious aspects of the situation just pictured, the schools can hardly dismiss the veteran's case. The fact remains that many young men, through no fault of their own, failed to obtain a high-school diploma at the normal age and in the normal manner. The high school has long since come to be an accepted part of the American com-

mon school, and the diploma is recognized as standard equipment of the American youth. Even though it may carry no "presto-chango," open-sesame powers, the diploma has come to mark a point of attainment on the American's ladder of progress through life—an attainment worth celebrating in pompous style. In more than twenty-five thousand cities, towns, hamlets, and other school communities, at least once a year the clans gather in the school auditoriums, the town halls, and the basketball gymnasiums to pay homage to that year's crop of youth who have reached the point in growing up that can be symbolized by the presentation of a high-school diploma. The seriousness of the occasion is marked by the townspeople's willingness to listen to long commencement speeches on hot June nights and by the graduates' willingness to sacrifice individuality in favor of the monotonous uniformity of flat boards perched precariously on their heads and long togas thrown from their shoulders.

High-school graduation is a crowning achievement in the life of a family, a joyous occasion, a moment of happiness calling for congratulations, gifts, and tears. No commencement has ever been a failure, for it marks something much deeper than the program. The demand for admittance to this ritual always surpasses the seating capacity of the hall, whether the class includes 23 or 523 graduates. Yes, regardless of the fact that high-school administrators may be inclined to dis-

miss with ease the cases of the ungraduated youth who return from service at the age of twenty to twenty-two, there may still remain the feeling here and there on the part of these youth that they have missed something that is part of life's equipment.

COLLEGES WILL ACCEPT VETERANS
WITHOUT HIGH-SCHOOL
DIPLOMAS

Veterans who are inclined to go on to college and who can demonstrate to a particular college their ability to do the work characteristic of that institution will, in most cases, not need a high-school diploma to reach this next station on life's course. If the high school is stingy with its diploma, this is no sign that the college will permit the absence of the diploma to blur its vision of the financial provisions of the G.I. bill. In their dark moments of 1942 and 1943, when the colleges began to take high-school students without their diplomas, they broke a custom that it may be quite simple to continue to break in the case of other unique situations, such as the situation of the returning veteran who has matured through foreign travel rather than through the usual last year or two of high school.

The impressive work of the United States Armed Forces Institute and the American Council on Education, in making it relatively easy to record military service in the form of school transcripts and to interpret educational experiences in the military

service in terms of Carnegie units and credits and semester hours, invites the college admissions officer to judge the veteran's educational maturity rather than to question his possession of a high-school diploma. Furthermore, in taking this action, the college may care to point out that it is giving the serviceman the "break" of enabling him to spend at the more expensive college level all the years of credit granted him by the Veterans Administration under Public Law 346. Yes, the gratification that will come to a young man who discovers that the college thinks enough of him to admit him without a "high-school education" will overcompensate for the lack of the high-school diploma.

REACHING VETERANS WHO DO NOT
PLAN TO ATTEND COLLEGE

It is the youth who normally would complete high school, and for whom high-school graduation would mark the end of formal schooling, who now challenges the high school to check its standard equipment to determine if something is there for him in the way of interest and credit.

After the veteran's own experiences in sustaining life on a desert island and in carrying his colors to Berlin and Tokyo, the tales of Odysseus and Ivanhoe will hardly hold his undivided attention for four and six weeks, respectively, as they now supposedly hold in suspense the adolescent boy and girl. This citizen of the world who has expressed himself forcefully and successfully in the pres-

ence of his enemies will hardly find solace in the technical approach to expression characterized by the traditional protracted dosages of formal grammar which form an integral part of almost every high-school English curriculum required for graduation.

After his own epic-making adventures in history, his presence in an American history classroom will offer a real threat to that typical pedagogical pattern which places chronological order before psychological interest and, in doing so, asks the student to drown his own social problems in the intoxicating atmosphere of sixteenth-century exploration and seventeenth-century colonization. Yes, to these active youth returning from overseas, establishing a beachhead back in the home-town high school may turn out to be more disturbing than landing at Anzio and on the shores of Normandy. Even if the defenders of the old school contend that the typical high-school subjects and the passive procedures that are commonly used in dispensing these packages meet the needs of normal adolescent boys and girls, it must be admitted that these subjects and procedures were never planned for a mature soldier who has just returned from prolonged war and experience in foreign lands.

NIGHT-SCHOOL POSSIBILITIES

Since day school promises little as an answer to the question under discussion, a night-school program invites careful consideration. As indicated earlier, how far the high school

goes in meeting the diploma needs of these men will depend largely on its interpretation of two things: (1) the provisions of Public Law 346 and (2) the nature and the function of the curriculum. It would be relatively easy for school officials, state and local, to overlook the possibilities of local night-school programs for the veteran, due to shortsightedness in either of these two areas.

Since it will be natural for the veteran to return to an occupation in his home community—the place he wants most to see for the time being—any further schooling for the veteran who would not go beyond high school must be a part-time matter and the closer home it is provided, the more attraction it will hold, all other matters being equal. Every high-school community in America can provide a night-school program for its servicemen if it but cares to push the idea through to reality.

Let us look first at the possibilities of financing such a program through the provisions of the act.

1. Public Law 346, as interpreted by a Veterans Administration release of December 31, 1944, provides up to \$500 tuition a year to a school for a student attending full time (30-38 weeks). In schools using the clock-hour system, such as high schools, 25 hours a week is considered a full-time program, while 12-17 hours attendance a week calls for one-half of full payment, or up to \$250.

2. The Veterans Administration, in recognition of the wide variation in

school situations, invites the referral to its Washington office of the cases not covered clearly in its regulations. It would seem that a state department of education, in clearing the way for local school systems to care for the cases being discussed here, could go far in helping these schools establish the claim that the night-school program to be set up for the veteran stands as a necessary part of the community's provision for secondary education but that it is independent of the day-school program and is, therefore, subject to a financial reimbursement under the act not governed by the day-school fee. That is, while the annual cost of educating a day-school student may be but \$150, the cost of educating the veteran in a night school might run as high as \$500 a year, because of the small number to be served. Such an interpretation on the part of the Veterans Administration would be in keeping with the spirit of the act, which is to serve the educational needs of each returning veteran.

3. In the light of these two points, it seems conceivable that a small school might set up a thirty-week night program for as few as ten men. A program running for three hours a night for four nights a week might bring the school as much as \$2,500. Liberally allowing \$500 of this for heat and light would leave \$2,000 for instruction—enough to attract as many as three or four teachers to carry this work in addition to their day assignments. Half of the teaching

force might serve on Monday and Wednesday nights; the other half, on Tuesday and Thursday nights.

4. As to credits earned in this manner, even if the limiting Carnegie unit plan has to be followed, in one year the veteran can complete on this part-time plan a full year's work. This amount of credit could be enlarged upon in the same length of time if the school authorities care to capitalize on the educational possibilities that are inherent in the idea of credit for work experience that is tied into the school's instructional program and its supervisory activities.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Quite naturally, many of the credits still needed for graduation by these men would be those in the more academic areas, such as English and social studies. It is in these areas that the work offered in these small night centers could reflect modern thinking and planning in curriculum. For instance, while it is traditional to administer English courses as a great number of highly specialized separate offerings, such as English 1, English 2, etc., a clever teacher in this field could handle, in the same group of ten, students who are to get credit in a variety of English subjects. Written and oral expression, reading, and the other usual activities of an English class could all be handled by means of individualized work as well as small group activity that offers common interest to all. The better laboratory procedures would take precedence

over the traditional assign-study-recite formula, and the single assignment and its companion, the single standard, would be outlawed.

Likewise, in other areas such flexibility could be used. In the laboratory or directed-study approach, the science teacher could direct three students in physics and for another handfull could be offering help in a physical-science course of a more general nature. The social-studies teacher could serve some students in a study of American history and others in the consideration of American problems in the fields of sociology, economics, and government. In all this study the teaching staff would be sitting down with a small group of mature men, working out with them individual programs of study that will serve their interests as well as lead to high-school credit in specific subjects.

The trend in recent years toward double-hour, double-credit courses overlapping former separate subject areas offers much to the efficient handling of courses for a few students, such as the group that a small school may handle through the provisions of the G.I. bill. For instance, American history and American literature, with written and oral expression thrown in, invite single treatment as a combination course offering maximum interest to a group of these veterans. The course would draw heavily on the backgrounds in these areas that bear meaning to the lives of these men. Naturally the course would not include the coverage of the typical liter-

ature book that we find in the courses now set up for high-school boys and girls.

Problems of American democracy as a course can be combined in like manner with Senior English as a live-wire, double-hour course, if the teacher will permit the reading to stem from the problems and the problems to stem from the lives of the class members rather than from the basic textbook now required in the regular day-school course.

Sometime ago the writer witnessed in a high school in Tennessee a most stimulating three-period, three-credit core course that crossed the three fields of English, science, and social studies. The group of students and the teachers began their study not with subject content but with the theme "The Problems of the South." Problems of American democracy, English, and science merged naturally in the advancement of the course. Themes for these broader courses in general education will not be lacking if they are allowed to grow out of the living interests of the veterans at hand. Out of the veterans' background and experience and their struggle to adjust to civilian life should come livelier courses than those that are now set up as required work for graduation.

Another area of the curriculum besides that of general education just treated will naturally be the more specialized work linked up with occupations and special talents. As to the occupational or vocational training area,

very few small schools will have at their disposal school facilities that will serve these men. However, credits in such areas may still be possible if the school provides credit for work experience in daytime occupations, the school assuming a responsibility in coordinating the school's efforts with the veteran's activities in an educational manner. Arts, crafts, music, and similar subjects may be provided in this night-school program without too much inefficiency of instruction. In fact, the development of these individual programs of study and of educational experience for these men merely calls for a bit of openmindedness about what a program of high-school education should include. State officials should be available upon call to come into counties and townships to help advise and encourage local school officials and teachers in this undertaking.

EXAMINATIONS OFFER TROUBLE

School officials can wreck the G.I. educational program, in the case of those men who want to go only as far as high-school graduation, if they try to systematize the undertaking into the mere manipulation of the stock courses already on hand and the administration of state examinations before credit will be granted. American

secondary schools are now shackled with a hodgepodge of standardized examinations that are justified on the basis of standards but that, in the long run, do little more than measure a momentary retention of some facts gathered in the course for the main purpose of passing the examination and qualifying for the next step on the educational ladder.

State officials could very easily discourage the small high school from attempting to serve the few veterans returning to that community—discouragement on the grounds of the inefficiency of such a meager undertaking. They could set up some extrinsic examinations as hurdles that might discourage the whole undertaking. On the other hand, they could encourage high schools to continue the drive to extend their services to the greatest number, in keeping with the principles for which the boys have fought. If we are inclined to become quite technical in approaching the problem of helping these men, we need but recall the great variation of ability and accomplishment that exists among the members of any high-school graduating class in this country, and in this realization we shall gain the strength that will enable us to brush aside petty regulations as we set out to be of service.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL STANDARDS AS AFFECTED BY WAR CONDITIONS

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SHORTLY after Pearl Harbor the high schools of the country were faced with the problem of making some kind of award to upper-class boys who were leaving school before men had no time to establish a uniform policy, either regionally or by states. The various communities followed their own bent, with the result that the minimum attendance re-

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS BY STATES AND
REPLIES RECEIVED TO QUESTIONNAIRE

STATES	PUBLIC SCHOOLS		INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS (BOYS ONLY)	
	Number of Schools in Association (by System)	Replies Received (by System)	Number of Members in Association	Replies Received
Connecticut.....	24	20	16	7
Maine.....	10	6	8	2
Massachusetts.....	66	24	32	13
New Hampshire.....	8	5	11	3
Rhode Island.....	10	8	4	2
Vermont.....	2	2	1
Total.....	120	65	72	27

graduation to enter the armed forces. It did not seem fair to withhold their diplomas, since there was little likelihood that many of them would return to school to complete their studies, even if they returned from the battle front. On the other hand, it was equally unfair to give the diploma to every lad who left for military service, irrespective of his standing. The war came so suddenly that school

quired for the diploma ranged all the way from two years in some school systems to three and one-half years in others. A shift of emphasis in subjects of instruction, brought about by the introduction of pre-induction courses, was also evident. As time went on, considerable concern began to spread among educators whether these steps would not result in the lowering of secondary-school stand-

ards and make the high-school diploma well-nigh worthless. In January, 1944, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools appointed a special committee to ascertain what the practice in this respect was in the New England states.

To obtain the necessary information, a questionnaire explaining the purpose of the investigation was prepared and circularized among 80 public-school systems and 31 independent secondary schools for boys. Replies were received from 65 of the former and 27 of the latter, or a total of 92, representing 83 per cent of all the schools circularized. Table 1 shows the distribution of member-schools by states and the replies received to the questionnaire.

The questionnaire sought answers to the following questions:

What is the minimum length of attendance required of boys who enter the armed forces to entitle them to the school diploma?

What reduction in time of study has been made, if any, in such required subjects as English, American history, etc.?

In terms of the customary fifteen college-entrance units, what is the maximum number which boys who receive the diploma on entering military service now earn under the minimum requirements for the diploma?

What subjects pursued in pre-war days are now omitted from the studies of young men who receive the diploma under the modified conditions brought about by the war?

MINIMUM LENGTH OF ATTENDANCE REQUIRED

The 65 public schools from which replies were received had a total en-

rolment of 59,846 students, of whom 6,292 were Senior boys. The 27 independent schools embraced an enrolment of 8,764 students, of whom 1,631 were Senior boys.

Of the 65 public-school systems, 10 made no reduction in the customary four years' attendance required for the diploma. Six of these are located in Maine, 3 in New Hampshire, and 1 in Rhode Island. The entire state of Maine operates under a uniform plan for granting the high-school diploma to boys who enter the armed services prior to graduation. These boys must secure enough additional credits through studies while in the armed forces to meet the full requirements for their diplomas. The credits are then submitted to the State Board of Education, which authorizes the particular school to issue its diploma.

Thirty-seven public-school systems grant diplomas at the end of three and one-half years; 3, at the end of three years plus one marking period; and 13 require not more than three years. One high-school system grants the diploma at the end of two and one-half years, and 1 requires not more than two years' attendance for the diploma given to boys who enter the armed forces.

According to these figures, it seems that the general practice of the public high schools, followed by 72 per cent of them, is to require a minimum attendance of three and one-half years for the high-school diploma. The remaining 28 per cent require less than that time.

Of the 27 independent schools which returned the questionnaire, 7 made no changes whatever. They still require four years' residence for their diploma. Thirteen grant the diploma on the basis of three and one-half years' residence; 2, on three years; while 5 declared that they treat their cases as they come up, on individual merits. Based on these figures, admitting that they are too

allowed by his draft board to complete his course. The others were granted that privilege by their respective Selective Service boards.

In a few independent schools, it is sufficient for a boy to complete studies equivalent to fifteen college-entrance units to receive his diploma, whether it requires three and one-half years or more or less. Some independent schools declared that they grant so-called "war diplomas" or "honor cer-

TABLE 2
MINIMUM ATTENDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS REQUIRED OF BOYS
WHO LEAVE TO ENTER THE ARMED FORCES BEFORE
THEY CAN RECEIVE THEIR DIPLOMA

NUMBER OF YEARS REQUIRED	PUBLIC SCHOOLS		INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS		BOTH	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Four.....	10	15.4	7	26.0	17	18.5
Three and one-half.....	37	56.9	13	48.0	50	54.3
Three.....	16	24.6	2	7.0	18	19.6
Less than three.....	2	3.1	2	2.2
Indefinite.....	5	19.0	5	5.4
Total.....	65	100.0	27	100.0	92	100.0

small for computation, 74 per cent of the independent schools require a minimum attendance of three and one-half years before awarding their diploma to young men who enter military service.

These facts are summarized in Table 2.

The independent schools, to a greater extent than the public schools, try to keep their Senior boys until the end of the Senior year. As one headmaster writes:

Of our Senior boys becoming eighteen before the first of January, only one was not

tificates" instead of diplomas to Seniors who enter the services before completing the required studies. None of the public schools reported this practice. A few public schools grant "completion certificates," which indicate the subjects studied by the young men during their high-school career and the length of residence.

CURTAILMENT OF SUBJECTS

With respect to the curtailment of subjects, it is evident from the replies received that pupils missed those subjects which they would have taken

during the period of attendance they omitted because of withdrawal. In schools which required three and one-half years of residence, the subjects were such as the second half of Senior English, part of Senior mathematics, and the second half of chemistry, Latin, or whatever the subject may have been. In the case of schools which required only three years of residence, the subjects curtailed were generally those offered in the Senior year.

The subjects which suffered most on account of the curtailed program were foreign languages and social studies. In most schools, public and private, provision was made for the students to complete as much science and mathematics as possible before entering military service. In order to make this possible, a few of the independent schools reduced the number of recitation periods from five to four a week in such fields as English and foreign languages.

Pre-induction courses, such as aeronautics, navigation, radio, and electricity, have been introduced in nearly all schools, public and private, but no reduction has been made in the fundamental requirements in order to provide time for these subjects. The policy was to allow students to take a pre-induction course in place of some elective, like music or art. In other independent schools the pre-induction courses have been "squeezed in as extras and take place evenings or Saturday afternoons," as one headmaster declared.

In the public secondary schools the median number of college-entrance

units which Seniors who leave to enter the armed forces can earn under the curtailed program ranges from twelve to thirteen. In the independent schools greater efforts are made through summer courses and otherwise to equip the student with his required fifteen units, so that he may be able to enter college without condition when he returns from service. In this respect the independent schools do better by their pupils than do the public schools.

SMALL PERCENTAGE OF BOYS LEAVE BEFORE GRADUATION

The most gratifying fact brought out by this investigation is that the number of Senior boys who are obliged to leave school in order to enter the armed forces is relatively small. It is not more than 10 or 11 per cent. The reason is that pupils who survive to become Seniors fall into the average or the below-average age group and, therefore, do not reach their eighteenth birthday until the second semester of their Senior year. At that time they have the privilege of asking for deferment under the draft law, and that is what most of them have been doing, even in schools which grant the diploma at the end of three and one-half years.

Evidence in support of this fact is found in an age-grade analysis of 1,246 high-school Seniors in a large New England school system. Taking the ages as of October 1, 1942, we find that 172 Seniors out of the 1,246, or 13.8 per cent, were eighteen years of age or over on that date. This per-

centage would thus be obliged to withdraw from school to enter the armed forces before February 1. A corresponding age-grade analysis of the 1,123 Seniors in the same school system as of October 1, 1943, discloses that only 79, or 7.0 per cent, were eighteen years of age or over on that date, making it necessary for that percentage to leave before the beginning of the second semester. The combined average of this age group for the two years is 10.6 per cent.

The conclusion to be drawn from these figures is well summarized in the statement of one headmaster who writes, "Our group is so young that very few boys have to leave before regular graduation." This statement applies with special emphasis to Senior boys taking the college-preparatory course, for these as a rule are even younger than the general run of secondary-school Seniors.

Nor should we overlook the fact that, with the stabilization of the armed forces and with the repeated advice of educators and federal authorities that boys under eighteen years of age remain in high school until they complete their education, the number of boys leaving school to volunteer in the armed forces has been much smaller during the past year than it was during the first two years of the war.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, it may be said, therefore, that, in so far as the New England secondary schools are concerned, the standards have not been seriously

affected by war conditions. The foreign languages and social studies have been somewhat weakened by a shift in emphasis, but mathematics and the sciences have been greatly strengthened. The greatest sufferers are the boys in those public high schools which grant the diploma at the end of three years or less. It is in such schools that some young men may feel inclined to volunteer for military service before they are eighteen, under the belief that they will not suffer any educational loss, outwardly at least. The number is not large. In one such high school it was found to be 3.3 per cent of the boys who had just completed their Junior year. On the other hand, the percentage of boys who receive diplomas from schools which grant them at the end of two or three years is almost twice as large as the percentage in schools which require a minimum attendance of three and one-half years. Manifestly, the practice of granting diplomas at the end of the Sophomore or Junior year is not what one would call an invitation to learning. By leaving school with their diploma, these boys are under the impression that they have a complete high-school education. It is not likely, therefore, that they would feel any inducement to continue their studies, either under the auspices of the Armed Forces Institute while in service or elsewhere after they come out of service. Their greatest shock will come when they try to capitalize on their high-school diploma under the mistaken notion that it represents a high-school education.

TEACHING COMMUNICATION SKILLS THROUGH THE USE OF SOUND FILMS

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INTRODUCTION

THE statement is frequently made that few classroom films are available for secondary-school teachers of English. In a sense this is true. In another sense, every motion picture that includes subject matter of interest to high-school boys and girls can be employed by English teachers as a means for motivating and teaching communication skills. This article was written to illustrate how sound classroom motion pictures can be used in this way. Examples are given of specific methods and techniques employed with success with an eighth-grade group in a junior high school, but the techniques are applicable to lower levels. While the particular film used for illustrative purposes was entitled "The Middle States,"¹ a wide variety of motion pictures might be

¹ "The Middle States" is an Erpi Classroom Film produced in collaboration with H. W. Odum of the University of North Carolina. In it animated drawings trace foreign and domestic immigration and distribution of people, together with the cultural heritage of the region. The principal agricultural and processing activities—iron-ore mining, coal mining, steel production, machine manufacture and meat-packing—are shown as influenced by the Great Lakes routes and railroads and by interdependence with other regions.

employed to accomplish the same ends.

These four types of learning experience are illustrated: (1) writing activities—learning to express ideas; (2) oral activities—planned and extemporaneous speaking; (3) organizing activities—learning to outline; and (4) research activities—learning to use library facilities and to prepare a report.

WRITING ACTIVITIES

A subject commonly chosen by many eighth-grade English students interested in improving the expression of their own ideas is a description of the community or region where the members of the class live. Teachers often find that such papers are couched in vague generalities—four or five sentences in all. The student's concept of his locale, about which he actually knows a great deal, is exhausted with a few trite comments. The following exercise can be employed effectively to provide subject matter for such themes. The three columns are self-explanatory and provide headings for items that might be written on the board. It is assumed that unsatisfactory themes have already been written.

A

Scenes and activities typical of the Middle States that were mentioned by pupils in their themes or brought out in subsequent discussion.

B

Additional scenes typical of the Middle States described in the film. (This column is filled in, of course, after screening.)

C

Scenes which might have been described in either themes or film but were not. (This column, too, is filled in after screening.)

Previous to seeing "The Middle States," the students fill in Column A. Ideas that they have after the film has been shown are noted in Column B. After the list under Column B has been completed to the students' satisfaction, the students are ready to undertake Column C. It may be assumed that the students by this time have in mind a much more definite conception of the Middle States and that they are ready for another (or an initial) essay on "The Middle States." The film and the discussion have refreshed the students' minds with necessary details.

There is considerable value in such theme-writing. Breadth of regional concept replaces narrow provincialism. Sensing the wealth of activities and enterprises, the more imaginative pupils proceed to develop situations and settings of people and places. The worker in the stockyards, the steel mill, or the dairy farm can be projected in writing with a much greater sense of reality after the students have viewed a good regional picture.

Emphasis can easily be placed on development of vocabulary during such an assignment. Attention is given to selecting words that are truly descriptive. Such specific questions as

the following have been used successfully to channel and elicit a more precise use of adjectives:

What words could be used to describe activities on a farm or in a city?

Could you use the same words in describing both types of activities?

Can words indicate the speed or the tempo of an activity?

What words would you choose to describe the pace of industrial life?

For an accelerated class or for accelerated students within a class, additional work can be done which is related to the film. Individuals can write their own narration for the picture. This exercise provides good practice in the formulation of short descriptive sentences. The sound would, of course, be turned off as the children review the film for the purpose of writing their own narration.

ORAL ACTIVITIES

Related to the previously described activity is another important objective: to give children practice in meaningful and directed oral expression. One type of oral activity which has much interest for junior high school pupils involves running the picture "silent" and letting a pupil prepare and give his own commentary. At this point the teacher has a re-

sponsibility not only to see that the pupil preserves the originality of his own ideas but also to protect the student from misunderstandings of film material. Having compared his own script with the original and having checked with the teacher, the pupil is then ready for a showing of the film and the delivery of his own commentary. Use of a microphone leading to the speaker adds interest.

Another fruitful oral activity based on the sound film is the round-table discussion. A suggested question which might be posed for discussion is: "Can the Middle States be considered self-sufficient?" Inasmuch as the answer is only implied in the film, a natural and creative discussion ensues.

After the screening of the film, the class is ready to consider questions such as:

Which states in the area filmed are primarily industrial?

Which are primarily agricultural?

Which states are both industrial and agricultural?

Such considerations are necessary preliminaries to the major issue: "Can the Middle States be considered self-sufficient?"

Various types of panel or round-table procedures can be used, depending on the preference of the teachers and pupils. In several classes the authors used four leaders who, having become interested in the preliminary discussion, volunteered to lead the groups the following day in a round-table discussion. Preparation involved

employment of research skills as well as oral presentation, because additional data were sought voluntarily by students who wished to prove a point. After preparation had been made, each of the four students presented his information and viewpoint to the class, and general participation and exchange of ideas followed.

ORGANIZING ACTIVITIES

The aim of the following suggestions is to teach pupils to organize factual data. Such content material as is included in "The Middle States" is excellent subject matter to illustrate the intricacies of outline construction. Use of a good motion picture expedites the process, for the initial step of reading to secure data or content is eliminated. A motion picture, by presenting the same material to all the pupils at the same time, makes it possible for the group to construct a model outline in class.

With "The Middle States" the following method has proved useful. After an initial explanation, the film is viewed. Immediately after the screening of the film, such questions as these are raised during discussion:

What states are included under the term "Middle States"?

What are the main occupations of the people of this region?

What are the contributions that this region makes to the United States as a whole?

What specific industries have developed as a result of the resources of this territory?

Which of the nation's largest cities are in this region?

After a series of such questions, the pupils are ready to face this problem: How is it possible to organize all these facts into some kind of system? How can related facts be grouped together?

At this point illustrations of an outline form can advantageously be provided by the teacher. If no previous instruction in outlining has been given, the teacher supplies the conceptual framework; the class, the details. Effective results can be obtained by group participation if a model skeleton outline is placed on a blackboard.

An example follows of an outline for which the teacher supplied the headings under Roman numeral I and capital A. The pupils, following these leads, supplied additional details to fill in the framework.

I. The Middle States include a large area.

A. Eight states may be included in this region.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.

B. These states include a productive area.

1. A little more than half the people live in rural areas.
 - a) Farms supply a great many necessary products.
 - b)
2. A little less than half live in urban areas.
 - a) Cities are the center of many industries.
 - b)

II. There is a widely varied population in the Middle States.

A. Immigrants have come from many lands.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

B. These people have made many contributions to this region.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

III. The Middle States have an excellent transportation system.

A. Several types of transportation aid the commerce of the region.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

B. The Middle States are able to engage widely in export and import trade.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Although the outline suggested has specific reference to "The Middle States," the procedure has wide possibilities of application with a variety of film materials.

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES AND ORAL REPORTING

The aim here is to motivate the selection of topics for research and oral presentation. As an exploratory device, films can be used to great advantage in suggesting to students possibilities for oral reporting on research topics of special interest. Selection of such topics is often mere routine, and the reporting is done perfunctory.

rily, merely to comply with an assignment.

The following method was used with "The Middle States" to help pupils choose interesting topics. After initial preparation the film was presented to the class. A brief discussion took place, which was followed by a second showing. The pupils were instructed to observe carefully the variety and the number of scenes illustrating "The Middle States."

Having seen the film twice, both class and teacher were ready to make plans for an oral-report assignment. At this point direct reference to the film proved stimulating. Such questions as the following arose in discussion.

What are some activities which the film merely suggested but did not describe?

The film did not include everybody of importance in the Middle States. Who were some rather famous people not mentioned?

What further examples might have been given of the recreational activities in this region?

Did the film suggest the part that farms may play in important scientific discoveries?

About what specific person or activity mentioned in the film would you like to know more?

After these questions were discussed, the teacher asked: "How many of you can suggest subjects relating to 'The Middle States' on which you might make a special study?"

A typical list included the following:

Topics about people

Henry Ford	Jane Addams
Wendell Willkie	Robert Taft
Grant Wood	Robert LaFollette
Abraham Lincoln	Marshall Field

Topics about science

The history of the automobile
Science and the soy bean
Future transportation

Topics about special industries

The stockyards
Steel manufacturing
Dairying
The place of the Middle States' industries in time of war

Topics about recreation

The baseball teams of the region and the players
Football

After compiling this list of their own suggestions and interests, the pupils were ready to select a topic. The group had been motivated for the teaching of at least two skills: (1) the use of reference aids and (2) the organization of research material for an oral report. The list of topics would vary with the films selected for use, but the method of presentation would remain essentially the same.

While the procedures described above for motivating and teaching communication skills all relate to the film "The Middle States," analogous methods could be employed with any good sound picture.

CHANGING CONCEPTS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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CRITICISMS OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL OFFERING

EVERYONE thinks that there is something wrong with our school system. Students think so. Any free discussion among teen-age persons will reveal this fact. Teachers think so. Listen to their talk when they get together at lunch or at some other informal tête-à-tête. Educators think so. Read the current educational journals or attend any educators' convention. The public thinks so. Listen to it as it voices its opinion through the newspaper and other mediums, as it criticizes the schools for their failure to diminish juvenile delinquency or their failure to send to the polls more intelligent and better-informed citizens. No, our schools aren't that bad! They do not have to be scrapped entirely! There are just a few things, here and there, that are bad and need correction. Our schools are too old-fashioned. Our schools are too progressive. We should teach more American history. We should teach less American history and more world history. We should teach each student a trade. We should teach each student how to think. We have departed too far from the "liberal education" philosophy. We have not departed far enough from that idea. We need better-

trained teachers. We need more teaching and less educating.

"Griping" is a universal custom, particularly when something goes wrong. Picking a scapegoat is another, and the schools are a natural target, for the public considers it their job, through universal education, to prevent most social ills. Is there something wrong? If there is, what is it? Can it be corrected?

Quite a furor was created about a year ago by the publication in the *New York Times* of the results of the American history test given to certain college Freshmen. Immediately newspaper and radio commentators and educators took up the question of whether the high schools were fulfilling adequately the function that they were created to fulfil. Although the shouting and tumult has died, or at least subsided, the issue is still with us. However, it is only part of a larger problem—the role and the function of formal education in a civilized society.

It is an old problem. It is a topic around which there has been unending discussion and debate. Each age practiced (and at the same time produced the seeds of) different philosophies and different points of view on the subject. On the whole, the varying phi-

losophies agreed in at least one respect—that the primary function of education was to prepare youth for adulthood and for active and useful participation in social living. The points of disagreement usually centered in the method or methods to be employed and the choice of subject matter.

Recently the Educational Policies Commission published a volume entitled *Education for All American Youth*.¹ After warning us against the hierarchal rigidity of a federally controlled system of secondary education (inevitable unless steps are immediately taken to reorganize our secondary schools so that they will meet the needs of *all* young people), the book envisions a new kind of secondary-school system. Under it, the new high school and the "community institute" will provide for every American youth—rich or poor, white or black, intellectually brilliant or dull—an education that will assure him the basic skills essential for his life's vocation plus a degree of *civic competence and personal development* that will equip him, upon graduation, to be a useful citizen of his community and nation and permit him to pursue his own personal happiness. It is a worthy goal toward which our secondary schools can direct themselves, but how is it to be accomplished?

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1944.

APPROPRIATE EDUCATIONAL OFFERINGS MUST BE EXTENDED
TO ALL

The basic problem that faces educators responsible for implementing this philosophy of secondary education, along with the economic implications involved, concerns itself less with those children who are traditionally high-school material—those academic-minded students who in the past went, and in the future will continue to go, to high school in preparation for one of the professions or for one of the many technical occupations—and more with those masses of pupils whom the high school with its usual academic offerings has not served. The problem concerns itself with those millions of young persons who either did not go to high school or who dropped out before they were graduated. It has to do with those masses of children who in the past never obtained a formal education beyond the sixth or eighth grade but who are still full citizens of our democracy—citizens with equal rights and equal responsibilities in raising families and voting. Although one recognizes that, even for the traditionally academic students, changes in curriculum offerings and in organization are in order, such changes are imperative for these other millions who will be the workers of our factories, the housewives, the operators of streetcars, the street-cleaners, the window-washers, and the garbage-collectors.

For a number of years educators

have been confronted with the problem of what to do with students who do not seem to want an education. Although the war has intensified this problem, the number of such youth has been increasing with every extension of the compulsory school age. Various reasons have been given to explain the existence of this problem.

One is the fact that young people naturally have the tendency to take the short-term rather than the long-term view of life. It is most evident today, when many young persons of secondary-school age are faced with the choice of continuing with their education, or of accepting attractive and well-paying jobs, or of entering the armed services. Even during peacetime, with jobs less plentiful than they are now, many young men and women could not see the value of what appeared to them an unnecessarily prolonged education.

Another reason given is the fact that home conditions, social and economic, have not been conducive to a prolonged education in the case of many of our young people. Undoubtedly this factor has been important. The extent to which its effects can be minimized goes beyond the immediate influence of educators because it involves social and economic factors beyond their control.

A third reason has been the accusation that our schools have not always been organized to meet the varying needs of all our youth. Many educators have not been unaware of the occasional truth of this accusation

and have, as the history of the development of education in this country shows, urged and actually brought about continuous changes in our educational programs to meet the changing needs of society. However, our schools have frequently been hampered by the fact that (1) the inertia of past traditions functions as much in the field of education as it does in other social institutions, (2) educators have not and still do not always agree among themselves as to what is best for youth, and (3) society through its various representatives has not always permitted educators to institute changes which they deem desirable.

Education, like all human institutions, is affected by social and economic crises. In the years immediately following the recent depression, state legislatures passed laws extending the compulsory school age to sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen years of age. The philosophy that prompted many of these laws was not always the belief in the values inherent in the extension of the compulsory school age but grew out, in some measure, of the need to make provision for the millions of unemployed youth who by their idleness were aggravating the already depressed economic conditions of the country. It was felt that keeping young people in school up to sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen years of age would be better than letting them roam the streets and thereby contribute to the mounting juvenile-delinquency rate. In some states inadequate sums of money were appropri-

ated to help finance the education of these young people. Many school districts were forced to curb existing educational facilities, such as summer schools and adult-education programs. Little effort was made to study the educational needs of these youths and to devise programs commensurate with their needs. Although the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps did attempt to meet the needs of some youth, these organizations were primarily designed as relief measures, and, even as such, their coverage was inadequate.

Today, with young people greatly in demand by industry, business, and the armed services, laws have been changed or their application has been modified to permit young people of school age to go to work, either on a part-time or full-time basis. Many of these youngsters, who in the classroom constituted disciplinary problems, are doing well in their paid work. Many of them, on visits to school, reveal that they have acquired a mature attitude and a social consciousness of the problems about them. This growth is a by-product of paid work experience, of being permitted to assume responsibility, of being recognized and appreciated for their contributions. Frequently former students express an appreciation for the school and a feeling of regret for not having taken more seriously their earlier education. One of Thorndike's basic laws of learning is the law of readiness, and in many cases it begins to function after the young person has

been subjected to paid work experience and everything that goes with it. Cannot use be made of this knowledge in planning our education for youth?

The introduction of vocational education on the secondary level was a recognition of the fact that it was not the economic and social factor alone that was responsible for the high mortality rate of high-school students before graduation but that the regular academic high-school education did not meet the needs of some youth. Even the vocational school does not meet the needs of some young people. Today, as in peacetime, there are many persons between the ages of fifteen and eighteen who for various reasons are not interested in school and "don't want to be educated." Many of these students, whether they are in a vocational school or in a high school, merely mark time until they reach the employable age, so that they can quit and go to work. Many of them go to work or otherwise play truant even before they reach the employable age. In the meantime, most of them are, to all intents and purposes, wasting their time.

A PROGRAM OF PART-TIME WORK OFFERS A SOLUTION

The ideal of universal education up to the present age limits of sixteen to eighteen (and even beyond these limits in individual cases) is both commendable and desirable, but subjecting all young people within those ages to relatively the same type of educational program does not meet the practical needs. Education means sub-

jecting the individual to those experiences which will contribute most to his growth and development. Adequately supervised paid work experience as part of an educational program may be as valuable as, if not more valuable than, formal class instruction in many cases. It is conceivable that some youth, still within the compulsory-school-age limits, may gain more and society may gain more if provisions were made for them to go to work on a full- or part-time basis and to continue the education necessary for full development at the same time or at a later time. Whatever criticisms may have been made of the National Youth Administration as a youth-training program, the N.Y.A. did yield to us one significant lesson: that initiating young people into paid work experience should be an integral part of our educational system and that the age of initiation cannot be fixed but may vary, depending on the developmental needs of the individual.

The idea of part-time work and part-time education is not a new one. The continuation school of former years was an attempt in this direction, but the old type of continuation school was, unfortunately, a makeshift measure designed to meet the compulsory-school-age requirements for those students who, for economic or other reasons, had to quit school and go to work. The provision, in most states, for the issuance of work certificates to children within the compulsory-school-age limits by school authorities is another approach in this direction. Here, again, something is

lacking. The issuing authorities are concerned primarily with seeing to it that the youth falls within the age required by the child-labor law of the state, that he does the type of work prescribed for his age group, and that he is physically fit to perform the work for which he is applying. Once the certificate is issued, the youth is completely divorced from further supervision by the educational authorities (except when he applies for another job). There is little or no attempt to supervise his work and to study and make provision for his further educational needs.

The writer hopes that the foregoing discussion will not be interpreted as a plea for lowering the compulsory school age of our youth. In its broader aspects it is a plea for continuing and even extending the compulsory school age, but with a different emphasis placed on the kind of education or training given. Every person, child or adult, has definite responsibilities and obligations that he must meet. The adult must work at some trade or profession if he is to maintain himself. His work may not always be to his liking, but he must contribute his share of labor in order to be accepted as an equal citizen in society. In civilian life, as in the Army, "goldbricking" is taboo. Second, in a democracy each adult citizen must make an intelligent and a conscientious effort toward the efficient functioning of that democracy. He must be alert, well informed, and constructively critical of all phases of his community life. The child also must be made to under-

stand that he has certain obligations in payment for his rights and privileges as a child citizen. Until a certain age his responsibilities consist of giving proper respect and obedience to his parents and to the laws, customs, and ethical standards set up by society, and of preparing himself, by submitting to a program of education and training, for adulthood and full participation in the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of citizenship. The trend of our compulsory-school-age laws has given recognition to the fact that organized society thinks that it is to its, as well as to the individual's, advantage for the individual to continue in school until a certain age. What are we going to do with those individuals who do not want to accept this decision of society, as many have not in the past? What are we going to do with those persons who do not want to continue in school? Are we going to let them do what they want and take the chance that they will obtain the desired training in the world of work? Some of them will, but not all of them.

It has been pointed out that one reason why some of our young people have not continued in school until they reached the compulsory-school-age limit is that our schools are not organized to meet their particular needs. A revision of the secondary school or the setting-up of new types of schools that will meet the particular needs of youth is necessary. One of these new schools may be a modified vocational school—one of the new

types envisioned in *Education for All American Youth*—where the child will be given the opportunity to acquire the elementary skills of many more trades and occupations than is now possible, in addition to basic training in the fundamentals of good citizenship, basic English usage, and proper use of leisure time. Many more millions of youth probably would be served by this new school than are served in our present high schools and vocational schools, but there will still be some who will not fit into it. To them the following must be said: "You must make up your mind to do one of two things: either continue in school and make a conscientious effort to take *full* advantage of its offerings, or submit to a supervised paid work program (private or government subsidized)." To the individual who would not fit into any formal education program—no matter how modified and changed to meet the varying needs—the latter choice would be a welcome one.

IMPLEMENTING A PART-TIME WORK PROGRAM

The type of program envisioned is obviously one that will require considerable thought and study before it can be implemented. However, the following might be some of its basic features:

1. Retention and more stringent enforcement of our child-labor laws, which should be made more uniform throughout the United States.
2. The establishment of a larger and well-

trained counseling staff at all levels of our school system.

3. Thorough, periodic medical and psychological examinations of all students, particularly of those who are unable to adjust themselves to the educational program.

4. Assignment to the counseling staff of the responsibility of issuing all work certificates, after thorough study of the pupil and consultation with parents, whether the student is to be engaged in supervised private employment or in paid work training.

5. Provision for part-time educational programs for working students, graduates, and adults, on the level of their interests and abilities, to supplement their work experience. Such programs would not be uniform throughout the country but would vary to meet the peculiar local needs of the various communities. Formal classroom work would probably play a less important role than it does at present. The laboratory method, the demonstration, and the motion picture would probably prove most valuable in such a supplementary educational program.

Obviously, several difficulties present themselves. One is the need for additional sums of money. That difficulty is not a new one. The main question should be whether such a program has merit and would help to bring about a better adjustment of youth to adult life. This question has already been answered in the affirmative. The money factor should therefore not stand in the way.

The second difficulty will arise in getting employers to co-operate and in finding jobs for youth in times of economic depression. In this connection it is interesting to note that England is contemplating passing legislation whereby the employer would be compelled to permit youth

within the compulsory school age to take time off to continue with a part-time educational program. Such laws might not be necessary in this country. A well-publicized campaign might bring employers as well as labor unions to allow such arrangements for young workers. As for securing jobs for youth in times of economic depression, it might be worth while for the federal government to institute, both as a measure of economic relief and as part of an educational program, paid work experience, a kind of modified National Youth Administration program, but controlled and supervised by the local educational authorities. Furthermore, the provision of paid work experience would enable many youth to continue their secondary and even higher education, who otherwise would be unable to do so. The paid work experience to be provided would have to be determined on the basis both of economic need and of the developmental need of the individual youth, the latter depending on the nature of the work experience and the nature of the continued educational program suitable for him.

There is something wrong with our schools. There probably always will be; for, like other social institutions, the schools are, by their very nature and function, society's instruments for perpetuating itself. As such, they will always be characterized by a lag. It is the degree of lag and what we do continuously to reduce it that is important.

PLACE OF EXERCISE IN THE PHYSICAL-FITNESS PROGRAM

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DURING the past two and a half decades, the public schools have experienced a great expansion of the curriculum—and expansion sometimes without due regard to the relationships between additional subject matter and those subjects already in the

II the public schools have been criticized severely with regard to the physical preparation of young men for the armed forces. For example, Dr. Kleinschmidt has stated:

We were shocked in 1917 to find that 50 per cent of youth called up for army service were incapacitated because of defective vision, hearing impairments, cardiac dysfunction, hernia, dental caries, tuberculosis, and venereal diseases. Today, we are similarly affected by the findings made by army medical examiners over the past twenty-six months. But, while the percentage of rejections today, 27 per cent, compares very favorably with the 52 per cent rejected in 1917-18, it must not be forgotten that medical examinations today are much more exacting, due to improved skill in medical diagnosis, than were those in World War I.¹

TABLE 1
CAUSES FOR REJECTION OF YOUNG MEN
ENTERING THE ARMED FORCES
IN WORLD WAR II*

Cause	Per Cent	Cause	Per Cent
Dental defects..	20.9	Venereal diseases	6.3
Eye defects....	13.7	Ear defects....	4.6
Cardiovascular diseases.....	10.6	Food defects....	4.0
Hernia.....	7.1	Lung defects, including tuberculosis.....	2.9
Mental and nervous diseases.....	6.3	All others.....	24.5

*Data for this table are taken from Earl E. Kleinschmidt, "Meeting Today's Health Problems," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXVI (September, 1943), 12.

curriculum. As a result, there has been built up in some cases an unwieldy, and oftentimes an unsound, conglomeration of courses for our future citizenry.

CRITICISM OF SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAMS

This paper is directed primarily toward the present-day emphasis on calisthenics which has invaded the public school in a most unscientific manner. From the onset of World War

Table 1 shows the main causes for rejection of young men entering the armed services in this war. It is interesting to note that the first two causes account for more than a third of all the rejections, while the first four causes account for more than half the total. It is axiomatic that physical defects do not suddenly descend upon a person reaching the age of seventeen or eighteen or at the beginning of any particular war. It is known from tabulated records that the so-called "de-

¹ Earl E. Kleinschmidt, "Meeting Today's Health Problems," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXVI (September, 1943), 12.

plorable physical conditions" of our youth in World War I were evident in our children as far back as 1900. As Ciocco and his associates² have stated, the conditions which have resulted in present rejections were discernible among the school children fifteen or twenty years ago, as revealed by comparisons of the school health records of draftees with the medical examinations of these draftees made in the last year.

MISUNDERSTANDING OF SCHOOL HEALTH GOALS

Kleinschmidt has mentioned that the goals for the school health program should include:

(a) Correction of remedial defects; (b) prevention and control of communicable diseases; (c) optimum nutrition for all; (d) prevention of accidents and skill in first aid; (e) balanced programs of work, exercise, recreation, and sleep; (f) attainment of sound mental attitudes; and (g) meeting health requirements for military, industrial, agricultural, and community service.³

There appears to have been some misunderstanding among school administrators, teachers, and particularly physical-education teachers as to the proper conditioning of public-school youth toward a desirable health goal. There are some educators who have assumed that stamina, endurance, poise, strength, and agility are in themselves desirable goals for a physical-fitness program; hence the

interscholastic competitive program has been stimulated relentlessly. Athletes have been burned out before reaching their Senior year, and we shall never know exactly how many have been injured permanently. These aspects of strength, agility, etc., are but minute phases of the entire physical-fitness program and should be resorted to only as a means to an end, not as ends in themselves.

In the prelude of a committee's report⁴ indorsed by the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association, it is clearly pointed out that physical fitness is only one phase of total fitness and that what a person does with his organic power is more important than the mere acquiring of power itself.

Furthermore, it should be remembered that all children are not cast from the same biologic foundation. If we believe that children are differentiated from one another mentally, socially, morally, and physically, we cannot wholeheartedly initiate, in our public schools, physical-fitness programs designed only to prepare bombardiers and tank fighters. We should discard our unscientific teaching methods and allocate our energies toward health inventories that are cognizant of the biological characteristics of each child and that will determine each individual child's growth, development,

² Antonio Ciocco and Others, "Physical Defects of Draftees," *Public Health Reports*, LVI (December 12, 1941), 2375.

³ Earl E. Kleinschmidt, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

⁴ "The Role of Exercise in Physical Fitness," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (November, 1943), 79.

and limitations and the effect that the program might have on each pupil.

An example of misinterpretation of the Selective Service examinations and their findings, resulting in a physical-fitness program designed to alleviate further misfits, is indicated by a source bulletin issued by the State Department of Education of Florida. The bulletin states that, to remedy the situation revealed by Selective Service examinations, a total program for physical fitness must be carried on.

This will involve all aspects of the eight-point program now being put into effect in Florida. These eight points are as follows: (1) regular physical examinations; (2) correction of all defects possible; (3) control of communicable disease, giving particular attention to immunization against smallpox for everyone and against diphtheria for those between the ages of nine months and twelve years; (4) a clean, sanitary environment; (5) regular, systematic physical exercise; (6) proper nutritional status through eating wholesome foods; (7) health information and wholesome health practices; and (8) a wholesome mental attitude based upon sane thinking and indomitable courage. The physical-education program in Florida will be especially concerned with Item 5 in this total fitness program. That this phase of the work needs serious attention is shown by the fact that 50 per cent of the selectees who passed the physical examination for induction into the service, indicating that they were in excellent health, required sixteen weeks of general physical conditioning to prepare them for the technical training necessary of the modern soldier.⁵

⁵ *Source Materials for Physical Education in Secondary Schools*, pp. 1-2. Bulletin No. 5. Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1942 (revised).

Kleinschmidt has warned against such overemphasis on activity:

In our schools and colleges so much emphasis is being placed on becoming physically fit in terms of motor abilities, such as the ability to run, jump, climb, and swim, that it is oftentimes overlooked that good health is basic to the development of all these abilities. The development of strength, for example, is quite as dependent on normal growth and development and proper food consumption as it is on physical activities which bring the large muscles into active use.⁶

A great deal of misunderstanding of the term "physical fitness" is evident today. Some public schools devote entire class periods to calisthenics, while the teaching personnel supervise the pupils in the proper nomenclature, cadence, and terminology of the exercise. Other schools are emphasizing that at least half the class period should be devoted to encouraging the development of "big" muscles and strength. In some schools the calisthenic programs form the major portion of activity during each separate class period even though the children are dressed in civilian clothes, the same clothes that are worn throughout the school day. To enforce a strenuous calisthenic program in a public school where proper dress is avoided and where the student will remain in school thereafter for from two to four periods in perspiration-soaked clothes is defeating the primary purpose of physical education as well as that of the health-education program.

Kleinschmidt states:

⁶ Earl E. Kleinschmidt, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

The officers in the Army and the Navy who have come into the schools to advise with respect to the organization of the Victory Corps physical-fitness program have told us in no uncertain language what must be done to get high-school youth in shape for army service. At the very top of the list they place—not calisthenics, not sports, not diet. No. At the top of the list of "musts"—believe it or not—they place adequate rest, relaxation, and sleep.⁷

While the United States has evidently been "sold" on the physical-fitness idea, it is interesting to note what the British secondary schools are emphasizing during the present war. British secondary schools are still intended to prepare a child for the professions, for commercial life, or for the universities. Further, "the greatest changes have probably been in home economics (in the girls' schools) and in the technical and 'workshop' work of the boys."⁸ So far as war work in the schools is concerned, the aim in British secondary schools has been to keep education as normal as possible and to keep the standards, either academic or practical, at their pre-war level. "It is felt that the function of the school is to teach the child and prepare it for responsible citizenship, and for this an all-round training is necessary now as before the war."⁹

WHAT WE CAN DO

If we believe that a good system of education requires that all children re-

ceive the type of education for which they are best adapted, teacher-training institutions, administrators, and teachers will have to formulate an intelligent plan involving more purposeful activity than has been prevalent in past years.

There is specific need for agreement among physical educators about what constitutes a good program in physical education. The manner in which most programs of physical education are conducted today in our public schools is most unscientific.

The curriculum should be organized to make the best possible contribution to the growth of the pupil at each stage of his progress. It should be organized on the assumption that the primary object of education is growth, and not merely preparation.¹⁰

There is need for a broad conception of the subject [physical education], of its in-school and out-of-school relationships, and of its individual and social values. . . . Health protection, health teaching, physical education, and recreation, properly related to individual interests and capacities, should constitute features of the new courses in physical and health education.¹¹

The modern school health program requires the co-operation of teacher, supervisor, school physician, nurse, school psychologist, and parent. Closer co-operation between local boards of health and boards of education is imperative, in order to avoid conflicts in jurisdiction and to promote a more healthful school environment.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

⁸ British Information Services, "The British Schools in Wartime," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (November, 1943), 47.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 49.

¹⁰ Payson Smith, Frank W. Wright, and Associates, *Education in the Forty-eight States*, p. 57. Prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education. Staff Study No. 1. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 74-75.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON STATISTICS, THE THEORY OF TEST CONSTRUCTION, AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

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THE following bibliography, with a few exceptions, has been selected from issues of educational and psychological journals from March, 1944, to March, 1945, inclusive. Sharp distinctions do not exist between the fields covered in this list, but, as an assistance to the student with special interests in one or more of the fields, the references have been classified under the following categories: theory and use of statistical methods, problems of test construction, and factor analysis. No articles dealing primarily with the use of tests have been included because these items are distributed functionally in other lists in the cycle, such as those dealing with secondary-school instruction, guidance, etc.

THEORY AND USE OF STATISTICAL METHODS

412. BATEN, WILLIAM DOWELL, and HATCHER, HAZEL M. "Distinguishing Method Differences by Use of Discriminant Functions," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XII (March, 1944), 184-86. Illustrates the use of the method of analysis of variance in determining the relative effectiveness of two types of teaching.
413. BENJAMIN, KURT. "An I.B.M. Technique for the Computation of ΣX^2 and ΣXY ," *Psychometrika*, X (March, 1945), 61-67.

Describes a method for tabulating scores on I.B.M. cards so as to obtain the sum of squares and, under limited conditions, the sum of products when the machine is not equipped with the "card cycle total transfer" device.

414. BLISS, C. I. "A Chart of the Chi-square Distribution," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, XXXIX (June, 1944), 246-48.

A chart which includes a separate curve for each degree of freedom from 1 to 30, covering a range of 0 to 60 for chi squared and a range of 0.001 to 1.0 for p .

415. BROGDEN, HUBERT E. "On the Estimation of the Changes in Correlation and Regression Constants Due to Selection on a Single Given Variable," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (November, 1944), 484-92.

Develops formulas applicable to the situation which arises when regression estimates computed for an unselected population are based on data from a selected population.

416. BURT, CYRIL. "Statistical Problems in the Evaluation of Army Tests," *Psychometrika*, IX (December, 1944), 219-35. Discussion of statistical problems which have arisen in connection with the selection of Army personnel.

417. BUTSCH, R. L. C. "A Work Sheet for the Johnson-Neyman Technique," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XII (March, 1944), 226-41.

Illustrates a three-page work sheet designed to simplify the computations for the Johnson-Neyman technique, a method whereby two groups can be compared

on one variable when other variables are held constant statistically.

418. CARROLL, JOHN B. "The Effect of Difficulty and Chance Success on Correlations between Items or between Tests," *Psychometrika*, X (March, 1945), 1-19.

Suggests the use of the tetrachoric correlation coefficient when items vary in difficulty and proposes a method for correcting a 2×2 table for the effect of chance.

419. DAVIS, FREDERICK B. "A Note on Correcting Reliability Coefficients for Range," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (November, 1944), 500-502.

Presents a formula for estimating the reliability of a test for an unselected sample when the test has been administered to a selected sample.

420. JOHNSON, PALMER O. "The Increase in Precision in Educational and Psychological Experimentation through Statistical Controls," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (October, 1944), 149-51.

Points out the importance of experimental design and the proper selection of statistical method for research workers.

421. JOHNSON, PALMER O., and TSAO, FEI. "Factorial Design in the Determination of Differential Limen Values," *Psychometrika*, IX (June, 1944), 107-44.

An example of the application of the principles of factorial design to an experiment in psychology. The first section of the paper is devoted to a detailed presentation of the numerical example; the second section, to the development of the mathematical formulations for the problem.

422. LORD, FREDERIC M. "Alignment Chart for Calculating the Fourfold Point Correlation Coefficient," *Psychometrika*, IX (March, 1944), 41-42.

A chart which may be used to calculate the fourfold point correlation coefficient for any fourfold table.

423. PASCHAL, F. C. "A Chart To Facilitate the Estimation of the Coefficient

of Partial Correlation," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (November, 1944), 220-22.

Presents a chart from which can be read the reciprocal of the denominator of the formula for the partial correlation coefficient. Values can be read with an accuracy of .01 or .02.

424. RICHARDSON, MARION W. "The Interpretation of a Test Validity Coefficient in Terms of Increased Efficiency of a Selected Group of Personnel," *Psychometrika*, IX (December, 1944), 245-48.

Develops and describes "a measure of predictive efficiency that can be interpreted by practically anyone."

425. SIEMENS, CORNELIUS H. "Note on a Technique in the Application of the Tolley-Ezekiel Method of Handling Multiple-Correlation Problems," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XII (March, 1944), 242-43.

Indicates how slide-rule procedures can be applied to multiple-regression problems.

426. WHERRY, ROBERT J. "Maximal Weighting of Qualitative Data," *Psychometrika*, IX (December, 1944), 263-66.

Indicates the derivation of a method whereby qualitative data may be used to predict success or failure on an independent criterion. A transformation equation for punched-card coding is included.

PROBLEMS OF TEST CONSTRUCTION¹

427. ANDERSON, EDWARD E. "A New Form of Examination in the Subject-Matter of Psychology," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXVI (January, 1945), 46-52.

Suggests developing questions for testing subject matter according to the various problems and types of questions used in the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale and illustrates such suggestions in the field of psychology.

¹ See also Item 368 (Saucier) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

428. BINGHAM, WILLIAM E., JR. "A Study of the Effect of the Presence of the Examiner upon Test Scores in Individual Testing," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXVIII (December, 1944), 471-76.
An experimental study of three tests to determine the effect of the examiner's presence upon the validity of the results.
- ✓ 429. BLOOM, BENJAMIN S. "Some Major Problems in Educational Measurement," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (October, 1944), 139-42.
Suggests the problems which are currently of major importance to test makers.
430. CHEN, L. "The Correction Formula for Matching Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (December, 1944), 565-66.
A note supporting the author's formula for scoring objective tests of the matching type.
431. DAVIS, ROBERT A. "Testing for Aptitudes," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXVI (January, 1945), 39-45.
Directs attention to areas where evaluation techniques need to be developed for predicting the performance of the college student.
432. FARNSWORTH, PAUL R. "Further Data on the Obtaining of Thurstone Scale Values," *Journal of Psychology*, XIX (January, 1945), 69-73.
An application of Allport's technique to the preparation of scale values for items in an attitude scale.
433. GROSSMAN, DAVID. "Technique for Weighting of Choices and Items on I.B.M. Scoring Machines," *Psychometrika*, IX (June, 1944), 101-5.
Explains a technique which permits the weighting of responses to test items on the I.B.M. test-scoring machine on the initial scoring.
434. HEBB, D. O., and MORTON, N. W. "Note on the Measurement of Adult Intelligence," *Journal of General Psychology*, XXX (April, 1944), 217-23.
A discussion of the difficulties of defining and measuring intelligence, with special reference to the construction of intelligence tests for adults.
435. KIRKPATRICK, FORREST H. "Directional Tests for Educational Guidance," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (October, 1944), 143-45.
Expresses a need for "some kind of aptitude measurements which will discover latent learning abilities of a specialized sort."
436. LORD, FREDERIC M. "Reliability of Multiple-Choice Tests as a Function of Number of Choices per Item," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (March, 1944), 175-80.
A formula is developed for expressing the change in reliability of a test due to a change in the number of choices per item.
437. LORR, MAURICE. "Interrelationships of Number-Correct and Limen Scores for an Amount-Limit Test," *Psychometrika*, IX (March, 1944), 17-30.
The mathematical relationship is shown between an individual's number-right score and his limen score as estimated by the constant process for an amount-limit test homogeneous as to content and varied as to difficulty.
438. MCNAMARA, WALTER J., and WEITZMAN, ELLIS. "The Effect of Choice Placement on the Difficulty of Multiple-Choice Questions," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXVI (February, 1945), 103-13.
The authors examine a great many four-choice and five-choice test items, administered to large numbers of cases, to determine the effect of position on the difficulty of items.
439. MASLOW, A. H. "What Intelligence Tests Mean," *Journal of General Psychology*, XXXI (July, 1944), 85-93.

A clear, nontechnical explanation of Binet's construction of his scale and the meaning of "intelligence quotient."

440. MONROE, WALTER S. "Educational Measurement in 1920 and in 1945," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (January, 1945), 334-40.

An overview of the past twenty-five years in the history of the measurement movement.

441. ODELL, C. W. "The Scoring of Continuity or Rearrangement Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (September, 1944), 352-56.

Methods which have been proposed in the past for scoring rearrangement tests are fairly laborious to use. The author here presents a table which may be used to shorten the process.

442. SIMS, VERNER M. "Educational Measurements and Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVIII (September, 1944), 18-24.

Emphasizes the importance of evaluating all aspects of the teaching-learning situation.

FACTOR ANALYSIS

443. BROGDEN, HUBERT E. "A Multiple-Factor Analysis of the Character Trait Intercorrelations Published by Sister Mary McDonough," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (October, 1944), 397-410.

Analyzes thirty-four character traits in order to "provide with a minimum of labor evidence which would enable the formulation of hypotheses and the more fruitful planning of later and more extensive factor studies."

444. BURT, CYRIL. "Mental Abilities and Mental Factors," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, XIV, Part II (June, 1944), 85-94.

A discussion on the relation between mental abilities and the factors determined by factor-analysis procedures.

445. CATTELL, RAYMOND. "A Note on Correlation Clusters and Cluster Search Methods," *Psychometrika*, IX (September, 1944), 169-84.

Describes and compares four methods of determining the clusters in a correlation matrix. Comments on the relationship between clusters and factors.

446. CATTELL, RAYMOND. "'Parallel Proportional Profiles' and Other Principles for Determining the Choice of Factors by Rotation," *Psychometrika*, IX (December, 1944), 267-83.

Seven principles are described by which factor solutions may be judged with regard to the "psychological meaningfulness" of the factors. Equations are suggested for discovering the unique solution.

447. DAVIS, FREDERICK B. "Fundamental Factors of Comprehension in Reading," *Psychometrika*, IX (September, 1944), 185-97.

Kelley's method of factor analysis is applied to data for tests of nine reading skills administered to 421 Freshmen in teachers' colleges.

448. DAVIS, FREDERICK B. "The Reliability of Component Scores," *Psychometrika*, X (March, 1945), 57-60.

A method "for determining the reliability of each of the components resulting from a factor analysis by the principal axis method."

449. GOODMAN, CHARLES H. "Prediction of College Success by Means of Thurstone's Primary Abilities Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, IV (Summer, 1944), 125-40.

A report on a number of studies conducted at the Pennsylvania State College relating to the possibilities of using the Thurstone Primary Abilities Tests for predicting scholastic achievement.

450. GUTTMAN, LOUIS. "General Theory and Methods for Matric Factoring," *Psychometrika*, IX (March, 1944), 1-16.

"Develops a variety of new methods for extracting factors from matrices." Meth-

- ods are included "for extracting one factor at a time and . . . for extracting several factors at a time, be they oblique or orthogonal."
451. HOLZINGER, KARL J. "Factoring Test Scores and Implications for the Method of Averages," *Psychometrika*, IX (September, 1944), 155-67.
The general procedure and detailed steps are presented and illustrated for attaining complete factor analyses of scores. Both centroid and oblique solutions are included.
452. HOLZINGER, KARL J. "The Relationship between the Centroid and Spearman's Methods," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV (September, 1944), 347-51.
Points out "the relationship between the centroid method for obtaining factor coefficients and Spearman's 1914 method" and "the relationship between the centroid method and Spearman's theorem on the correlation of sums."
453. HOLZINGER, KARL J. "Interpretation of Second-Order Factors," *Psychometrika*, X (March, 1945), 21-25.
Expresses the second-order factor, derived from the intercorrelations of oblique factors, in terms of the original first-order factors.
454. HOLZINGER, KARL J. "A Simple Method of Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, IX (December, 1944), 257-62.
Describes a method for extracting correlated factors simultaneously in case certain conditions are satisfied.
455. KELLEY, TRUMAN L. "A Variance-Ratio Test of the Uniqueness of Principal-Axis Components as They Exist at Any Stage of the Kelley Iterative Process for Their Determination," *Psychometrika*, IX (September, 1944), 199-200.
Indicates the F -test to be used for the difference between the variances of two components. For a numerical application, see Item 447 (Davis) in this list.
456. THURSTONE, L. L. "Second-Order Factors," *Psychometrika*, IX (June, 1944), 71-100.
Presents an analysis of second-order factors and their relations to first-order factors in five ways, namely, a literal notation, a physical example, a diagrammatic representation, a geometrical example, and matrix equations relating the two kinds of factors.
457. TSCHECHELTIN, S. M. AMATORA. "Factor Analysis of Children's Personality Rating Scale," *Journal of Psychology*, XVIII (October, 1944), 197-200.
Intercorrelations and factor pattern are given for the Tschectelin 22-Trait Personality Rating Scale administered to children in Grades IV through VIII.
458. TUCKER, LEDYARD R. "A Semi-analytical Method of Factorial Rotation to Simple Structure," *Psychometrika*, IX (March, 1944), 43-68.
Presents and illustrates with numerical data a factorial rotational method "which represents a compromise between the use of subjective judgment characteristic of graphical methods and the routine application of analytical methods."
459. TUCKER, LEDYARD R. "The Determination of Successive Principal Components without Computation of Tables of Residual Correlation Coefficients," *Psychometrika*, IX (September, 1944), 149-53.
A method is presented for determining the principal components of a correlation matrix without the necessity for computing the successive tables of residual correlations.
460. WHERRY, ROBERT J., and GAYLORD, RICHARD H. "Factor Pattern of Test Items and Tests as a Function of the Correlation Coefficient: Content, Difficulty, and Constant Error Factors," *Psychometrika*, IX (December, 1944), 237-44.
The authors investigate the roles of content and difficulty in the factor analysis of test items.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

TEACHER-RATING PROCEDURES.—Evaluation is implicit in education. The evaluation of students in the learning process is universally accepted. Reavis and Cooper¹ hold that systematic teacher evaluation is also necessary, for the development and the maintenance of an adequate corps of teachers in a school system are too important to be left to chance.

The purpose of evaluation in relation to teaching service is not to eliminate the personal judgment of the executive but to supplement that judgment with other standards, to insure that the judgment is made in the light of full knowledge, and to restrict the capricious exercise of that judgment by means of verifiable records and democratic procedure.

The results of the evaluation of teachers are used in determining salaries, in planning promotions, in determining tenure, in stimulating teacher growth, in providing protection to teachers, in making reports to the public, and, in the last analysis, in promoting the welfare of school children.

Evaluation devices used by 104 city school systems were studied by the authors of the monograph under review. These devices were classified into twelve categories: rating devices, attendance records, previous experience records, professional preparation records, in-service training records, certification records, committee-work records, health-examination reports, case histories of supervision, promotion records, membership records, and self-appraisal records.

¹ William C. Reavis and Dan H. Cooper, *Evaluation of Teacher Merit in City School Systems*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 59. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1945. Pp. vi + 138. \$1.50.

The most frequently used method of evaluation is the rating scale, which, in too many instances, has become synonymous with evaluation, with the result that the whole principle of evaluation is attacked in terms of the objections to rating scales. A chapter of this monograph is devoted to an analysis of rating scales. Eighty-five scales were studied.

Five types of rating devices were identified: check scale, guided-comment report, characterization report, descriptive report, and ranking report. More research investigation and thoughtful analysis have been devoted to check scales than to any other means of teacher evaluation. Check scales cannot be valid measures of general teaching ability because they neither follow accurately nor sample adequately an acceptable pattern of general ability. Check scales can scarcely be expected to be valid in view of the way in which they are usually made.

Anyone desiring to improve a rating scale would have been helped if the authors had brought together into one list the desired qualities of a rating scale. Perhaps this was not to be expected from these authors since a very good case is presented against the use of rating scales.

Certain objections to rating teachers are pointed out. Administrators fear that systematic rating will disrupt pleasant relations with teachers. Many teachers dislike rating. Teachers' organizations frequently oppose periodic ratings. Evaluation systems are sometimes accused of debasing the professional character of teaching. Evaluation is sometimes said to be undemocratic.

Methods proposed for teacher evaluation include: rating instruments, teacher examinations, measures of prerequisites for teach-

ing, evidences of growth, evidences of productivity in pupil results, other evidences of productivity, and the cumulative personnel record into which the results of all evaluation are placed.

The authors hold that the cumulative personnel record system meets the criteria of a good method of teacher evaluation better than any other known program now in use in city schools. The following list indicates the types of information to be found in the cumulative personnel record: letter of application, confidential testimonials, transcript, interview summary, teaching load, extra-curriculum activity record, special projects, committee work reports, notes of important incidents, conference reports, classroom visit reports, rating reports, self-appraisal records, pupil ratings, community activity record, memberships and offices held, complaints, travel, work experience, summer-school attendance, extension courses, publications, newspaper clippings, case history, etc.

It is to be desired that decisions concerning teachers be made on the basis of a full body of evidence carefully compiled over a period of years rather than on the basis of more or less vague general impressions. All too frequently evaluation has not been supported with convincing evidence. It is essential to provide supporting data with each evaluation. Many kinds of evidence must be collected to reveal a teacher's success. A difficulty inherent in unrecorded evidence is that judgments cannot easily be verified. The worth of the cumulative record depends on the use made of the evidence therein, which should be reviewed and analyzed periodically.

The cumulative personnel record is the recommendation of this monograph. The justification for the more complicated procedure of the cumulative record must rest on the argument that any less complicated procedure will not produce the desired results.

This stimulating and helpful monograph should become a guide for every school ad-

ministrator, school-board member, and school supervisor who is interested in the improvement of teaching and in the welfare of children.

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SCHOOLS FOR A NEW GERMANY.—As this is written, the victory over Germany appears to be a matter of days, and the problems of peace, like children at their games, are calling, "Ready or not, here we come!" That the re-education of German youth is essential to the establishment of amity among the European nations is generally accepted. To have the observation on the prospects of such re-education by a German educator¹ who fled the fatherland because of his democratic beliefs is both timely and useful.

Professor Richter was an undersecretary in the Prussian Ministry of Education during the days of the Weimar Republic and was an associate of Carl Heinrich Becker. Hence he was a participant in the attempts at the reformation of the schools in the years following the first war and in the resistance to the rise of National Socialism. He has been teaching in America for the past five years and is in a position to appraise the schools in a free society for the suggestions that they offer concerning practices of worth to the education of the German people for whatever may be their future place in a democratic world community.

The value of Richter's book may consist more largely in his account of the historical attempt at education for democracy than in the consideration of what is likely to lie ahead. The failure of the hopes and the plans of Becker and his colleagues must be considered by those who estimate the possibilities of success for any course of action this time. After the collapse in 1918, democ-

¹ Werner Richter, *Re-educating Germany*. Translated by Paul Lehmann. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. xxvi + 228. \$3.50.

racy in Germany was introduced under the guns of the enemy, and the majority of the people were unprepared for it, the author contends. (One is reminded of Gladstone's remark, in the Irish debates, to the effect that liberty is the only school for liberty.) Failure in education was due to many factors, mostly political, such as a lack of success in creating a new symbolism, the shortsightedness of the British who did not interfere and save the Germans from themselves, political repercussions from economic distress, and the fact that the university professors worshiped the past. None of these should have surprised anybody.

When the author addresses himself to the question of what to do with Germany, he invades difficult terrain, for he is in the midst of events whose import is hard to discern, and his forecasts are subject to contingencies and imponderables impossible to foresee. That the problem of German education is linked to the whole matter of the terms of peace is recognized, and Richter offers a warning against a harsh treatment of Germany following its defeat. Any pleading that Germany must not be dismembered; that the German people must not be held guilty of the crimes of the Nazi authorities, being themselves prisoners of the Nazi authorities; that the victors are not entitled to distribute justice since they themselves are not blameless; that now is the time for the Germans to ask everyone to remember to behave as Christians; that the Germans might revolt and create chaos even worse than Hitler's, having become past masters at chaos—all are likely to be considered only with reference to the security of the rest of the world. Nations that arm themselves to the teeth and embark upon wars of conquest must be prepared for uncomfortable consequences if defeated and, after defeat, must expect a certain indifference to their unhappiness on the part of all who resisted their aggression.

Richter urges the abandonment of the Schmitt-Vansittart school of thought, which holds that a hard peace is necessary in keep-

ing with the sadism and the fanaticism of the German character. He does so on the grounds that Germany must not be regarded as the personification of evil, although he acknowledges that much evil, or a reasonable facsimile thereof, has been wrought by what appears to be some considerable element of the German people.

The hope in Germany will depend on the existence, among the Germans themselves, of elements that can establish a popular government devoted to the common man, to freedom, to civil liberties, and to creating popular education that will purge the youth and raise the level of general intelligence and good will. The translator of *Re-educating Germany* believes that Richter's discussion gives evidence that the prospect is less dismal than it seems. Dismal enough!

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ACCEPTABLE BUSINESS PRINCIPLES FOR COLLEGE FINANCE.—During the past twenty years, publications by Trevor Arnett, Lloyd Morey, and the National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education have charted the course for good college business management, and these volumes continue to serve effectively. A current publication¹ in this field provides a documented reference for persons concerned in a lay or professional manner with financial management of higher institutions. The comprehensiveness and the objective manner of presentation will refresh the business officer in his outlook on these problems and will provide the layman an increased appreciation for business management in these institutions. This compilation is significant also for the assistance it renders in furthering the professionalization of college business management.

¹ John Dale Russell, *The Finance of Higher Education*. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Bookstore (5802 Ellis Avenue), 1944. Pp. xii+362. \$3.75.

Russell has assembled and reviewed critically data from numerous independent surveys and unpublished reports concerned with college business management. The reader will recognize the influence of the author's firsthand study of practices in higher institutions of varying degrees of excellence.

This book examines the important data in the following areas of college finance: business organization; budgetary procedure; accounting, reports, and audits; student fees; financial assistance to students; management of endowment and trust funds; purchasing; management of auxiliary activities; financial promotion; and financing special projects. For the student of business problems in colleges, an extensive bibliography is provided. Among several topics suggested for further study are the need for extension of co-operative arrangements in purchasing, a critical evaluation of the sources of financial support for higher institutions, simplified financial accounting to serve the needs of educational institutions, and employment of the unit-cost technique as an administrative tool.

The reader is impressed repeatedly by the author's insistence that the principles of good financial management should apply in all business situations. The objectives of an educational institution may sometimes require an emphasis which appears to conflict with recognized commercial practices, but the author urges careful examination of these special requirements to avoid hasty adoption of policies which may not be sound.

Russell examines the controversy over the use of unit costs in educational institutions. He recognizes the validity of such criticisms as the lack of refinement in measuring units, the need for careful interpretation of data, and the difficulty of placing inter-institutional studies on a comparable basis. The excellent results with unit costs in plant operation and management lead to the conclusion that "the calculation of unit-expenditure data has a distinct place in the administration of higher education" (p. 146).

The philosophy underlying the present basis of financial support in higher institu-

tions is considered. Russell opposes the full-cost tuition fee because it is an unsatisfactory method of tapping social resources for the support of higher education. He believes that "the problem of a democratic system of education at the level of higher education can never be solved as long as fees are depended upon as an important source of support for the program" (p. 225). These statements have real merit, but it is doubtful that educational institutions will soon concede that their contribution to society can better be rendered without the aid of tuition fees. The development of state-supported institutions is extending the availability of higher education in this country. It may well be that the private colleges should reconsider their function in our society and seek financial support from an enlarged constituency recognizing the contributions which private colleges can provide in areas of research and investigation.

Russell has made a substantial contribution to the literature of higher education. Although the writing conveys a sense of appreciation for the problems of college finance, there is ample warning that business officers and others concerned with the educational system of the country must recognize continually the real financial issues in the task of educating youth at the college level.

There is need for continual revision of a book such as this, in order to assure its current value. Russell indicates that he hopes such development will be possible in the future.

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A SCIENTIFIC COMPARISON OF TWO SHORTHAND SYSTEMS.—For over fifty years shorthand has been taught in America; yet during that time teachers have had to rely almost entirely upon publishers' claims and their own experiences in determining the merits of the various systems of shorthand. Therefore, commercial teachers should read with appreciation the results of a recent comparative study of the Gregg and Script

shorthand systems.² Whether one has an interest in a specific system or not, the facts brought out in such a study are significant. This study has laid the pathway for making a scientific investigation for comparing any two or more systems of shorthand. The concomitant findings of the study are as important to the shorthand teacher as the results of the study itself. Data are presented on dropouts in shorthand over a two-year course; on the reasons for dropouts and means of preventing dropouts; on the relation of typewriting to shorthand success; on forecasting success in shorthand; and on the use of aptitude tests.

The study was carried on by the Education Research Corporation. Three members of the Corporation were close to the headquarters of the study in Cambridge: Truman L. Kelley, Kirtley F. Mather, and Frederick G. Nichols. The technical consultant on shorthand was Mrs. Tilly S. Dickinson, assistant professor of secretarial studies at Simmons College. Other outstanding commercial educators were invited to act as a supervisory committee.

Gregg and Pitman were the two most widely used systems in the country in 1938, but for varying reasons it was impossible to get enough Pitman classes to yield comprehensive data. Hence the study was limited to a comparison of Gregg and Script.

The choice of schools to take part in the study was made in the spring of 1938. It was necessary for those teachers who undertook the instruction of Script shorthand to attend a six-week summer session, since Script is a relatively new system. Ten pairs of classes, one Script for each Gregg class, were organized to begin a two-year program in the fall of 1938. In September, 1939, twelve more pairs of classes were added to the study. The school situation was usually identical for the members of a pair of classes. Neither system had any advantage with respect to

teacher personality, but Gregg had a very definite advantage because of the greater experience of Gregg teachers. The interest of the teachers of the new system, Script, compensated to a lesser degree.

The shorthand instruction in the classes which participated in the study was not supervised by the study, but representatives of the study made bi-weekly visits to the teachers, administered all tests, and scored all papers used in the study.

Factors of chance were reduced as much as possible by bringing in a score on sixteen variables for each pupil. Of the variables retained as yielding significant results, twenty-six possible comparisons were made between Script and Gregg. These concomitant or matching variables not only were useful in adjusting scores on the study but can become very important as a prognosis of shorthand ability for use in school guidance.

A follow-up study was made of the students who had graduated from the two-year course in 1940. Interesting data were revealed in student responses to questionnaires and from interviews with their respective employers. More Script pupils than Gregg returned questionnaires, which may reflect more pleasant work experience on the part of Script students; the Gregg students had held their jobs for a longer period. The data collected in the follow-up seems to indicate that there is little to choose between the two systems. From the evidence presented in the actual study on seven criteria, however, Script surpassed Gregg on six points: accuracy of transcription in both first and second years; speed of transcription of material that had been dictated at less than ninety words per minute in both first and second years; transcription of cold notes (two weeks later); and untaught words. Gregg surpassed Script on the accuracy of transcription of material dictated at speeds of ninety words per minute or more.

Some seventy-two tables, numerous figures, and statistical data are scattered through the reading. It is easy to get lost in these and to lose the continuity, but at the conclusion of each of the eight chapters a sum-

² Walter L. Deemer, *An Empirical Study of the Relative Merits of Gregg Shorthand and Script Shorthand*. Harvard Bulletins in Education, No. 22. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1944. Pp. xxii+526. \$4.00.

mary sentence and significant findings aid the reader in getting the correct picture. There are occasional weak spots in the comparisons, but the study warns against placing undue weight on such factors. In one instance Mrs. Dickinson criticizes Gregg plans for spreading the study of principles over a thirty-six-week period (p. 192). She must have forgotten Gregg's functional method, which presents all the principles in the first eighteen weeks of shorthand instruction.

The thoughtful work which has gone into this study cannot be appreciated without reading the book. The methods shown in it can be of great aid to future studies. The tables reveal facts that should be valuable in discussing shorthand problems with supervisors and administrators.

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